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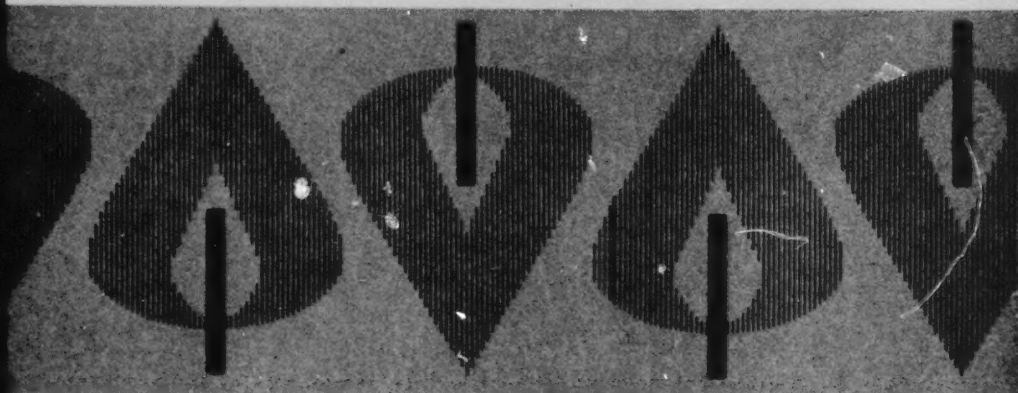
ABSTRACT

Eleven articles on professional continuing education are presented. Titles and authors are as follows: "Teacher Perceptions of Roles of University Instructors" (Alvin M. Kilgore, L. James Walter, Charles Moore); "Non-Traditional Education and Institutional Reform" (Willis D. Moreland); "Basic Bifurcation in Adult Education Policy and Practice" (Gordon C. Godbey); "An Analysis of the Potential of the Telephone as a Viable Instructional Tool" (Charles Koelling, Richard Robinson); "The When, Where, What and How of Planning Inservice and Professional Meetings" (Richard Fletcher, Jr., Margaret S. Phelps); "Balancing Quality and Accessibility: What Impact Does Regulation by a State Agency Have on Off-Campus Credit Programs?" (Michael A. Falcone, David K. Keymer); "Effects of H.I.P. Program on Attitudes toward Professors" (Carl C. Fehrle, Neila Pettit, Terry Ten Brink); "Off-Campus: Beyond the Carnegie Unit!" (John J. Dlabal, Frank W. Lanning, Leonard Pourchot); "Indiana--Cooperative Efforts toward Excellence in Continuing Education" (Donald Rininger); "A Continuing Education Paradigm for School Board Members in Rural Areas" (Leo McGee, Margaret Phelps, Larry Peach); and "In-Service for Administrators" (Arthur G. Kupisch, Peter J. Murk). (SW)

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VOL XXXIV

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THE NEW CAMPUS

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The Editor's Comments

Traditionally, this section of *THE NEW CAMPUS* has been reserved for the editor to write comments. If other editors before me labored with similar thoughts, they probably asked themselves, "Should the comments be intellectual, scholarly, or could they (perhaps) be whimsical?" Arriving at an answer to this question takes a lot of soul-searching. Nonetheless, each preceeding editor seemed to have chosen the right comments to publish at that time.

Having served on the Editorial Board for several years prior to assuming the responsibility as Editor, I can honestly say that the opportunity to be involved in the publication of *THE NEW CAMPUS* has been an excellent experience. As one reads various writings expounding problems or new concepts, it becomes evident that continuing education administrators across the country face similar situations. About the only major differences are the locations and the actors. The underlying messages are usually the same; budget restrictions due to inflation, policies and their interpretation, requests for services from the constituency.

The authors of the articles in this publication of *THE NEW CAMPUS* have tried to convey to the reader some pertinent aspect of continuing education; writing, implications of policy decisions, quality of programming, effects of certain programs. Comments on articles or the publication in general are welcomed. The Editorial Board is desirous of improving the journal and maintaining a high standard of professionalism.

George Hackler
Continuing Education
Eastern Illinois University
Charleston, Illinois

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TEACHER PERCEPTIONS OF ROLES OF UNIVERSITY INSTRUCTORS

Alvin M. Kilgore, L. James Walter and Charles Moore

Introduction

Concern, frustration and puzzlement were among the emotions felt by the writers as they taught in a variety of campus and off-campus courses. Teaching these courses could be described as attempts to facilitate learning in a variety of settings, such as field-based or in-service situations, and on-campus graduate level courses. What were some of the reasons for such high levels of frustration felt by the writers when working with teachers and administrators in in-service and field-based types of activities? Did teachers notice a difference in the behaviors of the professors in different instructional situations? If so, what effect did these differences have on both the teachers and the professors, if any? Perhaps teachers enrolled in the classes also felt puzzlement and frustration as college instructors "imposed" sets of objectives and activities with little consultation with the participants.

These questions served as a focal point for a research project concerning how classroom teachers view different graduate level instructional settings and the people who teach in these settings, primarily college instructors. For purposes of this project, three types of graduate courses were compared: 1) regular on-campus graduate courses; 2) off-campus graduate courses, which use on-campus types of activities and materials, and are referred to as field-based classes; and 3) in-service courses designed to meet site specific needs of either a school or local school district. Participants involved in the research were classroom teachers who participated in one or more of these graduate courses. These courses were those which offered three college credits upon successful completion by the participants and were taught by college professors.

The importance of the study is related to how the changing role of college professors from one of primarily a campus theoretician to one of being able to provide an array of theory application activities in field-based situations. The reasons for this changing role are many and complex. They are related to declining enrollments in graduate schools, longer teacher tenure (close to 50 percent of whom have their master's degree), and the higher level of need and involvement for in-service and staff development opportunities at school and district levels.¹

The authors, college professors, each taught some on-campus graduate courses, some field-based courses, and served as a consultant/teacher for in-service types of activities. The in-service activities were generally developed and implemented to meet local needs and extended over a semester or more.

The data collected from participants in these three settings serve to support the case study approach used in this paper which limits the generalizability of the conclusions. The conclusions may, however, serve as guidelines and expectations for professors working in similar situations.

About The Authors

Drs. Walter and Kilgore are Associate Professors of Secondary Education, Teachers College, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

Mr. Moore is Dean of Students at Blaine High School, Anoka, Minnesota.

Instrument Development

The instrument used followed a course evaluation format and had three parts. Part one was used to collect data concerning instructional practices and their importance. Part two had participants identify course characteristics for each instructional setting, and part three, to determine teachers' motivations for enrolling in the courses.

In part one, the writers identified six instructional practices that were common to each of the particular type of courses described in this paper. These practices included: 1) the presenting of data; 2) the use of varied instructional techniques; 3) participant involvement in course activities; 4) identification of outcomes; 5) the importance of the course to a local school; and 6) overall ratings of the instructors. From this base a fifteen question evaluation instrument was developed. Participants in the three types of courses were asked to respond to the instrument by agreeing or disagreeing with the statements and to give each statement an importance rating. The second part of the instrument asked participants to identify, from a given list of twelve criteria, those course characteristics that could be identified with each of the different types of courses.

Data Collection

Data were collected from the participants of six different courses; two from graduate level on-campus courses ($N = 54$); two field based classes ($N = 50$); and two in-service courses ($N = 49$). The on-campus courses were required for the Master of Education degree from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. They were general courses which dealt with curriculum and instruction.

The field-based courses were part of the University of Nebraska-Lincoln's Continuing Studies Program and were designed to be practical in nature, that is, more applicable to practitioners in their school settings. These sessions were held in Educational Service Units which are regional centers for educational activities in Nebraska. Participants included elementary and secondary teachers from schools in each of the regions in which the courses were offered.

The in-service courses, although each different in design and outcomes, were originally initiated by school administrators. The administrators, in addition to asking for university help, involved their teachers very early in the planning stages, and teachers were instrumental in helping to develop course processes and outcomes. One program involved the development of evaluation skills by teachers from an urban junior high school and then the application of these skills for assessing three different aspects of their school program. The results were to serve as a basis for further school policy and program development. The second in-service program was a district-wide effort in a school district which included ten neighborhood elementary schools, one junior high and one senior high school. Among the participants were teachers from all three educational levels along with some counselors and administrators. The task was to develop a district-wide testing policy to implement a testing program with the characteristics of minimum competency testing as a possible testing base.

Data were collected from the six settings between May 15 and July 20, 1979, and occurred at the end of each course. The courses were taught by the researchers. The data were analyzed using non-parametric procedures and compared the responses from each sub-group with each instructional cluster and with the course characteristics.

Findings

Part I: Comparing Course Evaluations

The data in this section were collected on a checklist with 15 items. The items were written to reflect the activities of the courses taught, and participants were asked to indicate two different responses to each item. First, they were asked to rate how important they felt the item was for the course in which they were enrolled, and second, to indicate whether or not they felt the item had been attained. This was done to determine the relative importance for each item over the three groups of participants and to learn which items were successfully attained during the time the courses were in session.

Figure one indicates the instructional clusters used to organize the fifteen items into six groups. Individual item responses are found in Tables 1 (item importance) and 2 (item attainment). In the balance of this section findings will be discussed according to the six instructional clusters.

Presenting the Data. Two items (numbers one and five) dealt with how well the professors presented information to the groups enrolled in the classes. All groups viewed data provided as being important to their individual and group progress (Table 1). Field-based groups consistently viewed this as being more important than did the in-service or on-campus groups. A partial explanation for this phenomenon may be that information resources found in field settings and the general orientation of workshops is application-oriented rather than receiving information for intellectual purposes only.

Data in Table 2 indicate that groups thought the professors met the information providing needs of students. The in-service groups were less positive that the professors had met this characteristic. This may be due to the problem of providing a wide variety of relevant resources for students in a class site remote from the university. They simply operated without the resources they needed.

The Use of Varied Instructional Techniques. Items 2, 4 and 10 asked participants about the instructional techniques used during the courses. All groups viewed the three items as being important. The field-based participants viewed item four significantly more important than did the other groups. All groups felt that the items in this cluster were attained (Table 2). With item four, however, the in-service group ranking was significantly lower than the other groups. This may be related to the difficulty of providing resources to groups of participants in field-based and in-service classes when they are needed. This seems to be a difficult problem. Surprisingly, the on-campus teachers were significantly less sure that course requirements and grading procedures (item 10) were accomplished. Part of the explanation for this lower rating may rest with the notion that on-campus grading procedures are more formal than in field settings and students may have higher anxiety about grades and thus require more specific information relative to what is required.

Participant Involvement in Course Activities. Evaluation questions 3, 6 and 15 were designed to assess the degree to which participants saw themselves controlling the instructional variables in each course. Individual opportunity (item 3) and group involvement in decision making (item 6) ranked high in importance from all three groups. The in-service group saw item 15 (students controlling the course agenda) as being important. The on-campus and field-based participants did not feel that this was an important attribute of their courses. The procedure of involving the in-service group in determining, to a large degree, the agenda of the course seems to make a significant difference in how groups view the issue of student determined course agendas.

Figure 1

**Clusters of Items by the Importance
and Attainment of Course Attributes**

Cluster and Name	Items
1. The presenting of data	1. The necessary information was provided so that course objectives could be developed. 5. Data were provided when necessary to aid groups-individuals in moving toward task completion.
2. The use of varied instructional techniques.	2. The teaching techniques used facilitated individual and group decision making. 4. Adequate time and support were provided so that individuals/groups could meet their objectives. 10. The course requirements, grading systems, products, etc., were clearly stated.
3. Participant involvement in course activities.	3. Each individual had an opportunity to explore the task he/she wanted to explore. 6. Opportunities were provided for the group to make changes within small group objectives and processes toward final task outcomes. 15. The students had too little control over the agenda for the course.
4. Identification of outcomes.	7. The product outcomes for each group are appropriate and adequate for the time and work involved. 8. The contributions from each group are equally significant. 12. The project or purpose for having this course was generally a good one.
5. The importance of the course to a local school.	11. Courses such as this are important for my district. 13. The product(s) from this course will have a significant impact on our district or school.
6. Overall ratings of the instructors.	9. The instructor(s) showed an interest in what our assigned tasks were. 14. The instructor(s) did not really care if we accomplished anything.

Table 1
Teacher Responses to Importance of Course Evaluation Questions by Type of Course

Question	Type of Course	Range of Responses in Percentages					X ²
		Very Important 5	4	3	2	No Importance 1	
1. The necessary information was provided so that course objectives could be developed.	On-Campus	54.7	30.2	13.2	1.9	0.0	11.73
	Field-Based	79.2	18.8	2.1	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	60.0	26.7	11.1	0.0	2.2	
2. The teaching techniques used facilitated individual and group decision making.	On-Campus	54.7	34.0	11.3	0.0	0.0	8.26
	Field-Based	72.9	25.0	2.1	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	54.2	31.3	12.5	0.0	2.1	
3. Each individual had an opportunity to explore the task he/she wanted to explore.	On-Campus	60.4	30.2	5.7	3.8	0.0	13.97
	Field-Based	82.0	12.0	6.0	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	60.4	25.0	12.5	0.0	2.1	
4. Adequate time and support were provided so that individuals/groups could meet their objectives.	On-Campus	75.0	21.2	3.8	0.0	0.0	15.19*
	Field-Based	94.0	4.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	65.2	21.7	10.9	2.2	0.0	
5. Data was provided when necessary to aid groups/individuals in moving toward task completion.	On-Campus	64.2	28.3	7.5	0.0	0.0	12.48
	Field-Based	76.0	20.0	4.0	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	58.7	21.7	10.9	2.2	6.5	
6. Opportunities were provided for the group to make changes within small group objectives and processes and toward final task outcomes.	On-Campus	57.7	23.1	15.4	3.8	0.0	8.65
	Field-Based	65.3	22.4	12.2	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	60.9	19.6	15.2	0.0	4.3	
7. The product outcomes for each group are appropriate and adequate for the time and work involved.	On-Campus	63.3	24.5	8.2	2.0	2.0	4.19
	Field-Based	78.0	16.0	6.0	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	65.2	21.7	8.7	2.2	2.2	

Table 1 (continued)

Question	Type of Course	Range of Responses in Percentages					X ²
		Very Important			No Importance		
		5	4	3	2	1	
8. The contributions from each group are equally significant.	On-Campus	50.0	22.0	22.0	4.0	2.0	22.68*
	Field-Based	72.9	16.7	8.3	2.1	0.0	
	In-Service	33.3	15.6	33.3	8.9	8.9	
9. The instructor(s) showed an interest in what our assigned tasks were.	On-Campus	84.6	13.5	1.9	0.0	0.0	6.79
	Field-Based	95.9	4.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	81.3	14.6	2.1	0.0	2.1	
10. The course requirements, grading systems, products, etc., were clearly stated.	On-Campus	64.2	18.9	17.0	0.0	0.0	7.40
	Field-Based	80.9	6.4	12.8	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	73.9	15.2	8.7	0.0	2.2	
11. Courses such as this are important to my district.	On-Campus	51.1	38.3	8.5	2.1	0.0	21.63**
	Field-Based	84.0	8.0	8.0	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	83.0	8.5	6.4	2.1	0.0	
12. The project or purpose for having this course was generally a good one.	On-Campus	54.9	33.3	7.8	8.9	0.0	19.48**
	Field-Based	89.8	8.2	2.0	0.0	0.0	
	In-Service	66.7	26.2	4.8	0.0	2.4	
13. The products from this course will have a significant impact on our district or school.	On-Campus	40.4	29.8	19.1	8.5	2.1	15.79*
	Field-Based	32.6	32.6	32.6	0.0	2.6	
	In-Service	60.5	20.9	18.6	0.0	0.0	
14. The instructor(s) did not really care if we accomplished anything.	On-Campus	52.2	10.9	8.7	4.3	23.9	13.92
	Field-Based	39.3	3.9	14.3	0.0	42.9	
	In-Service	70.7	7.3	9.8	2.4	9.8	
15. The students had too little control over the agenda for the course.	On-Campus	20.5	18.2	29.5	4.5	27.3	28.19**
	Field-Based	10.7	10.7	39.3	10.7	28.6	
	In-Service	60.5	14.0	11.6	4.7	9.3	

*X² with 8 d.f., $p < .05$; **X² with 8 d.f., $p < .01$

Table 2
Teacher Responses to Course Evaluation Question by Type of Course

Question	Type of Course — Percent Agreement		In-Service	X ²
	On-Campus	Field-Based		
1. The necessary information was provided so that course objectives could be developed.	88.7	100.0	87.5	6.38*
2. The teaching techniques used facilitated individual and group decision making.	100.0	100.0	97.9	2.14
3. Each individual had an opportunity to explore the tasks s/he wanted to explore.	86.8	97.9	89.8	4.15
4. Adequate time and support were provided so that individuals/groups could meet their objectives.	86.5	98.0	66.7	18.27**
5. Data were provided when necessary to aid groups/individuals in moving toward task completion.	94.2	100.0	75.0	18.37**
6. Opportunities were provided for the group to make changes within small group objectives and processes and toward final task outcomes.	94.1	100.0	91.8	3.89
7. The product outcomes for each group are appropriate and adequate for the time and work involved.	90.4	100.00	80.9	10.44**
8. The contributions from each group are equally significant.	92.2	93.8	63.3	20.59**

Table 2 (continued)

Question	Type of Course — Percent Agreement			X ²
	On-Campus	Field-Based	In-Service	
9. The instructor(s) showed an interest in what our assigned tasks were.	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.00
10. The course requirements, grading system, products, etc., were clearly stated.	66.0	87.8	83.7	8.22*
11. Courses such as this are important for my district.	90.4	100.0	100.0	9.84*
12. The project or purpose for having this course was generally a good one.	100.0	100.0	100.0	0.00
13. The products from this course will have a significant impact on our district or school.	67.9	80.0	82.6	3.42
14. The instructor(s) did not really care if we accomplished anything.	3.8	2.0	0.0	1.87
15. The students had little control over the agenda for the course.	23.5	2.2	4.1	15.03**

*X² with 2 d.f., $p < .05$; **X² with 2 d.f., $p < .01$

On the attainment scale (Table 2), the only item of the three which was significant was number fifteen. The in-service and field-based people strongly disagreed with the statement which indicated that in those settings the students had adequate control over the course agendas. The on-campus group disagreed with the statement but not as strongly. This would seem to be consistent with a fundamental difference between the types of courses as to how they were planned and controlled.

Identification of Outcomes. Outcomes from the courses were described in items 7, 8 and 12. On the importance scale reactions to the items were quite mixed. On the issue of appropriate outcomes the field-based group thought this was most important. The other groups concurred, but not as strongly. For item 8 (equal contributions from all sub-groups), the in-service group did not think that this practice was very important. The field-based and in-service groups saw the general purposes of their course as being significantly more important than did the on-campus respondents. Field-based teachers also felt that a regular course from the graduate curriculum was appropriate for their needs, and felt this more strongly than the other groups.

Were the outcomes met? For item 7 all groups felt that it was attained, however, the in-service group had a significantly lower rate of agreement. Additionally, this group did not think that item 8 was attained to the degree that the other groups did. Because they did not feel this was an important outcome, it could be concluded that they did not find the contribution of each of the sub-groups equally significant, but that was not important to them as long as the project (or purpose of the course) was completed. As the in-service participants were working on projects which were identified as priorities by their local districts, perhaps they were not as concerned with a perceived even division of tasks among their own small work groups as long as the overall project was completed.

The Importance of the Course to a Local School. The potential impact that the courses would have on local school districts was queried in items 11 and 13. On the importance scale, the in-service groups saw both items as being important attributes. The on-campus group did not view these items as very important, significantly so. The workshop group did not feel that it was important for the course products to have impact on the district, while the in-service teachers viewed the courses as important for the district and the products significant. This may be accounted for by the fact that the courses were tailored to match local district needs.

On the attainment rating, as one might expect, the on-campus participants did not feel as strongly as the other two groups that the courses they were taking would have an impact on their districts. Their responses were still positive overall on the issue, but not as positive as participants in the other two types of classes. The strength with which in-service and workshop participants responded is especially significant. Whether the course was specifically designed for the district, as in the case of in-service classes, or it was a regular course taught in a local district setting, participants overwhelmingly felt that the courses would have an impact in the district. This is one of the major findings of the study.

Overall Instructor Ratings. The final cluster of data concerns the overall rating of the instructor and were contained in item 9 (instructor interest in participant tasks) and item 14 (instructor caring about products). All groups viewed both of these items as being important with one exception: field-based participants rated 42.9% agreement for item 14. Perhaps because the item was stated negatively, teachers had a problem in placing the importance factor to it.

All groups rated the instructors as highly interested in the tasks and very caring about what was accomplished. A technique, which may have contributed to this

finding among the in-service groups, was to have each class prepare a report of activities at the end of the semester. The instructors served as editors of the reports and were responsible for distribution to interested groups, such as faculties, administrators and school board members. This technique helped keep groups on-task throughout the semester.

Part II: Identifying Course Characteristics

The purpose of this section of the assessment was to have participants identify those course characteristics that seemed related more to one type of course than another. This information would allow a professor to develop and use the skills necessary to meet each of the specific situational types of needs, or at least to anticipate some participant expectations.

In order to accomplish this task, the writers identified twelve course descriptors that would be found in most instructional settings, but also may have more emphasis in one setting than another. These twelve characteristics were:

1. Course objectives are developed to meet specific situational needs.
2. Time is controlled by the instructor.
3. Activities are based on research, recitation and reporting models.
4. A wider variety of instructor competencies are required for this setting.
5. Class projects and final reports are cooperative efforts of both participants and instructors.
6. Information is provided on a need basis.
7. Instructor frustration is very apparent.
8. Course outcomes have a direct relationship to work settings.
9. Expectation of participants are linked to expressed needs.
10. Class activities are very theoretical.
11. Instructors are seen as an extension of school authorities.
12. Participants are expected to meet predetermined objectives.

Respondents were asked to identify which characteristics were more predominant in each of the three instructional settings described in this paper. A characteristic could be identified in one, two or all three settings. Table 3 displays the overall percentage responses for each of the twelve characteristics.

The results indicate that on-campus courses can best be described as: 1) very theoretical, where time is controlled by the instructor and activities are generally based on reports, research and recitation, and 2) that the instructor generally sets the objectives and activities.

In-service courses, on the other hand, have objectives developed to meet situational needs and are related to work settings, instructors seem to need a wider variety of teaching skills, and to provide information only when needed by the participants, and participant expectations are linked to their needs. There was also an indication that course projects and outcomes are results of cooperative efforts between instructors and participants.

The results also indicate that field-based classes have many of the attributes of

Table 3
Overall Percentage Responses To Course Criteria By Type of Course

Criteria	Type of Course		
	On-Campus	Field-Based	In-Service
	Percent of Responses		
1. Course objectives are developed to meet specific situational needs.	14.4	30.7	55.0
2. Time is controlled by the instructor.	60.7	27.0	12.2
3. Activities are based on research, recitation and reporting models.	51.3	31.7	17.1
4. A wider variety of instructor competencies are required for this setting.	15.0	34.8	50.3
5. Class projects and final reports are cooperative efforts of both participants and instructors.	12.9	39.2	47.8
6. Information is provided on a need basis.	11.2	27.7	61.2
7. Instructor frustration is very apparent.	31.0	25.6	43.4
8. Course outcomes have a direct relationship to work settings.	8.3	35.6	56.1
9. Expectations of participants are linked to expressed needs.	8.1	29.2	62.7
10. Class activities are very theoretical.	77.0	16.8	6.2
11. Instructors are an extension of school authorities.	38.9	28.0	33.1
12. Participants are expected to meet predetermined objectives.	53.7	34.5	11.8

both in-service and on-campus courses. It is interesting to note that the data indicate that field-based classes are seen as not having any of the twelve characteristics listed above as major (over 50%) attributes.

Views of the instructors, either as authoritarian extensions of school administrators or having high frustration levels were not strongly seen as a major course attribute in any of the instructional settings.

Table 4 displays data from further analyses of the respondents course characteristics comparisons. Percentages from each sub-group of teachers (on-campus, field-based, in-service) were compared between each of the twelve characteristics and the three types of courses. A chi-square procedure indicated if any sub-group responded differently when matching the criteria to types of courses.

Table 4
Percentage of Participant Responses Comparing Course Characteristics to Different Course Types

Course Characteristics	On-Campus (N = 54)				Types of Courses Field-Based (N = 50)				In-Service (N = 49)			
	O.C.	F.B.	I.S.	X ²	O.C.	F.B.	I.S.	X ²	O.C.	F.B.	I.S.	X ²
1. Course objectives are developed to meet specific situational needs.	35.2	8.0	12.2	14.60**	35.2	60.0	26.5	12.49**	59.3	70.0	89.8	12.27**
2. Time is controlled by the instructor.	75.2	70.0	91.8	8.32*	16.7	42.0	46.9	12.17**	16.7	16.0	14.3	0.12
3. Activities are based on research, recitation and reporting models.	68.5	64.0	67.3	0.25	27.8	50.0	46.9	6.28*	18.5	18.0	30.6	2.94
4. A wider variety of instructor competencies are required for this setting.	27.8	18.0	8.2	6.61*	42.6	64.0	20.4	19.25**	46.3	58.0	81.6	13.91**
5. Class projects and final reports are cooperative efforts of both participants and instructors.	33.3	14.0	4.1	15.80**	51.9	76.0	32.7	18.80**	44.4	58.0	95.9	31.84**
6. Information is provided on a need basis.	22.2	4.0	14.3	7.30*	29.6	40.0	32.7	1.30	64.8	70.0	91.8	11.11**
7. Instructor frustration is very apparent.	25.9	32.0	20.4	1.72	29.6	6.0	28.6	10.66**	25.9	16.0	69.4	34.50**
8. Course outcomes have a direct relationship to work settings.	13.0	4.0	16.3	4.09	42.6	68.0	32.7	13.27**	70.4	63.3	93.9	13.74**

9. Expectations of students are linked to expressed needs.	14.8	6.0	8.2	2.50	35.2	48.0	22.4	7.07*	66.7	71.4	91.8	9.96*
10. Class activities are very theoretical.	79.6	80.0	83.7	0.33	14.8	10.0	28.6	6.33*	7.4	6.0	6.1	0.10
11. Instructors are an extension of school authorities.	33.3	42.0	44.9	1.57	27.8	16.0	42.9	8.75*	38.9	32.0	30.6	0.91
12. Students are expected to meet predetermined objectives.	83.3	72.0	85.7	3.41	27.8	62.0	67.3	19.30**	7.4	18.0	28.6	7.92*

**X² = 2 d.f., p. < .01; *X² = 2 d.f., p. < .05

These data indicate some strong differences in how each sub-group of teachers view each type of instructional setting. Generally, each group viewed most of the criteria applying to their particular type of course, e.g., field-based course participants saw seven of the criteria as being an attribute of a field-based course at a statistically significant level. To a lesser degree, the other two groups indicated loyalty to their respective instructional settings in the same manner.

Generally, these data support the results reported from looking at the overall percentages displayed on Table 3. Some major differences do occur, however. For example, instructor frustration was seen as a characteristic more likely to occur in an in-service setting as seen by in-service teachers (almost 70%), a significantly higher percentage than in any other setting. In-service participants also reported a much stronger relationship between participation in objective development and relating objectives and course activities directly to their school settings. Additionally, this group sees a strong relationship between their expectations and their perceived needs, significantly more so than the other groups.

Field-based teacher participants see attributes of both in-service and on-campus courses as being their own. These courses might be described as having some objectives developed to meet local or situational needs, that class products are joint efforts of instructors and participants, that these new products and/or skills probably have more of a direct application to the participants classrooms, and yet certain objectives and products are those of the instructor. They indicate the need for information to be supplied by instructors yet do not perceive the class activities to be very theoretical when compared with on-campus classes.

Part III: Participant Responses to Motivation Question

The final part of the instrument directed participants to finish an open ended question which started with:

I took this course because

Table 5 quantified the responses given to this question. The single largest response from all groups centered around the concept of self-improvement and professional growth. This was followed by financial rewards and in third place, convenience. That a course was required, was a common response only with on-campus respondents, and work-related reasons were given solely by in-service participants.

As most participants listed more than one factor as a reason for participation in one of these courses, it seemed logical to conclude that teachers participated for different combinations of reasons. The in-service teachers participated because the course was convenient, work-related, for salary schedule adjustments, and for self-improvement. Field-based participants left out the work-related concept while on-campus respondents tied self-improvement notions with required courses as major motivators. Additionally, on-campus participants listed high structure; intellectual change of pace; the importance of the content; to gain competence; and advancement as additional reasons for taking the course.

Additional comments from field-based teachers included: the activities provoked creative thought; to learn new ideas; it was friendlier — we knew the people; less theory; and it was one course of only a few being offered in the region.

In-service participants responses included: the need was apparent; most work was done in class; this type of course is more responsive; we have more time; it was an informal setting; and we liked the professors.

Table 5
Participant Responses-Motivation for Course Participation

Reason Course Was Taken	Number of Responses			Totals
	On-Campus	Field-Based	In-Service	
1. <i>Convenience:</i> (e.g., close to home, no parking problems, less travel, saved gas, etc.)	-0-	29	15	44
2. <i>Work-Related:</i> (e.g., this was good for my school/district fit our local problems)	-0-	-0-	29	29
3. <i>Financial:</i> (e.g., pay scale advancement, district pays part, etc.)	3	19	32	54
4. <i>Required:</i> (for advanced degree)	30	4	-0-	34
5. <i>Self-Improvement:</i> (professional growth, personal growth, interested in course content, practical, etc.)	22	39	35	96
6. <i>Recommended</i>	2	10	-0-	12
7. <i>Participants Determine Goals</i>	-0-	-0-	5	5
8. <i>Relaxed Atmosphere</i>	-0-	3	8	11
9. <i>Shorter Duration</i>	-0-	10	-0-	10

Discussion

The discussion will follow the format of the paper and list some conclusions from each of the sections. Guidelines derived from the first part of the paper concerning the clusters might be beneficial for persons planning graduate education courses for teachers and help to weigh the relative value of having courses offered on-site in a local district.

1. It is a major problem to provide in-service groups with the informational resources they may need to complete their projects. This seems to be true because it is difficult for the instructors to anticipate the varied informational needs of the groups and once the needs have been determined to supply it to an off-campus site. Additionally, the instructional skills of the professors may not match these needs. Either the professor has to acquire these skills or find someone else to help do the job. That may also prove to be difficult.

2. When planning courses to meet local in-service needs, it does not seem to be necessary to ensure that each participant or small group accomplish an equal amount of work. As long as the overall project is completed, individual participants are not too concerned about equal sharing of the tasks.

3. Participants in on-campus courses seem to have a stronger need for specific information relative to course objectives, course requirements and grades. This may

be explained by the fact that they are enrolled in formal graduate programs and have stronger needs to formally achieve than do participants in on-site courses.

4. By the nature of the three types of courses, participants have varying degrees of control over the content of the courses. They react to this in strange manners. In-service groups feel that their control of course agenda is significantly more important than the other two groups. In formal on-campus graduate courses participants do not seem as concerned by their control over course agendas. They apparently do not expect to have much control.

5. Field-based and in-service groups feel that it is important for the courses to have impact on their districts. This provides an important guideline for university professors offering such experiences. The course should either be tied to local district needs or be application oriented to fit what teachers' roles are within a district.

6. In all settings participants feel as though the instructors were interested in their tasks. Although this is an important concept for all classes, the writers think it is particularly important in in-service settings.

One could further conclude that participants in each of the settings described view the role of college professors differently, and that these teacher expectations, in each instance, have to be met differently. The following generalizations which support the guidelines should also be considered by college professors.

On-campus participants see the courses and instructors in a traditional way and have such expectations. On-campus instructors who attempt to involve participants (without preparing them) in objective setting and activity planning may feel frustration in that the students may not be expecting to be involved in these activities and will resist. Conversely, in-service teachers expect to have a strong voice in not only course outcomes, but in how the outcomes are attained. They expect sessions geared to their needs, are generally not interested in research or pedagogy directed from a professor to them — as students, unless there is a direct relationship to their objectives and activities. Additionally, they expect the professor to be able to deliver the necessary information, skills and materials when needed rather than at the convenience of the professor. Instructors must also be flexible in terms of when to meet with in-service groups, especially when working with them at their schools.

Field-based participants are more flexible in their view of course taking. They are very grateful for being able to participate at local sites, will put up with a lot of on-campus types of activities, but ultimately would like to see a strong relationship to a practical use of the information being provided.

The reasons participants gave for becoming involved in the instructional settings varied somewhat by the type of course. On-campus students listed that 1) the course was required for a degree; and 2) for self improvement as major motivators. Field-based teachers listed: self improvement, convenience, and salary increments while in-service participants added the concept of the course being related to their work along with self improvement, convenience and salary adjustments as primary reasons for taking the course. The self-improvement concept appears in all groups, however, as a single motivator it would probably not be sufficient as a reward structure for participation in any one setting.

These guidelines and generalizations, although limited by the nature of the study, may help explain much of the frustration felt by the authors, and perhaps other college personnel, who work in these three types of instructional settings, and perhaps impose more of the on-campus course attributes on teachers in the field-based and in-service settings. This could be a disastrous practice if the teachers were

not expecting and did not want that type of instruction. The "security blanket" of a college classroom, graduate school rules and regulations, library resources, bookstores and collegial support are elements not readily available to instructors when working with administrators and teachers in their schools or other regional locations. A college instructor must develop some different skills and knowledges, and be aware of differing levels of expectations from participants when working in the field or in-service settings. The writers also believe that many professors need to develop these skills rather rapidly as the next decade will find many more college professors working with teachers and administrators in the schools. The alternative seems to be unemployment!

Footnotes

1. Howey, Kenneth R. *A National Study of In-service Education*. A paper presented at the National Conference of the American Association of Colleges of Teacher Education. Chicago, February, 1979.

NON-TRADITIONAL EDUCATION AND INSTITUTIONAL REFORM

Willis D. Moreland

The impetus for the non-traditional education movement was in the social and political discontent which permeated the American scene in the 1960's. For many students, this discontent became focused on the higher educational system which they believed had become huge impersonal centers of learning which stressed the attainment of bureaucratic efficiency as a goal in preference to the establishment of educational programs designed to meet student needs. Colleges and universities were often viewed by students as hierarchial systems in which organizational structures and faculty prerogatives were based upon an administrative plan for dealing with students, and which denied students any significant opportunity to participate in the direction of their own learning.

It was out of this dissatisfaction with the tradition of higher education that the non-traditional education movement began to emerge. Through direction provided by the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education and the Commission on Non-Traditional Study, the essence of this new movement in education began to be formulated. As with many educational innovations, establishing the general characteristics of non-traditional education proved to be easier than prescribing a specific definition for that term. Generally, definitions that have been made have included statements which have emphasized patterns of learner centered reforms in curriculum and instructional programs occurring in post-secondary educational institutions. Thus, non-traditional education is primarily viewed as an effort to change from programs that are primarily institutional centered to ones that are more student centered.

Characteristics

In attempting to organize programs of learner centered education, colleges and universities developed institutional patterns which reflected certain characteristics. It is from an analysis of these characteristics that the meaning of non-traditional education can be more clearly seen. These characteristics may be grouped in the following general categories:

Students — Increasing access to colleges and universities is a primary tenet of non-traditional education. Educational opportunity would be extended to students of all ages, backgrounds and experiences through reducing the barriers which exist to this opportunity. With an increasing diversity of the student population, emphasis is given to developing programs which are consistent with the educational needs of individual learners. In non-traditional study, students are given a great deal of responsibility in constructing their own learning experiences and in establishing the pace of their own learning. The establishment of competencies provides the basis for assessment of individual student performance and there are differentiated program entry and exit points for students.

About The Author

Dr. Willis D. Moreland is a Professor of Adult and Continuing Education, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

Content — Rather than limiting subject matter to the parameters of individual disciplines, this form of education gives recognition to the problems identified by learners as an acceptable focus for the selection and organization of content. Out-of-class learning is combined with formal academic learning as a way of developing new knowledge and as a means of testing the applicability of theory in practice. Non-traditional education recognizes the validity of previous experiences as a basis for acquiring competence and institutional procedures are established for translating these experiences into academic credit.

Locus of Learning — Emphasis is upon providing varying patterns of student learning rather than upon predetermined time, course or curriculum requirements which are applicable to everyone. Flexibility is the keyword in that students are given wide latitude in determining how and when learning is to occur and in selecting from a variety of community as well as campus locations as sites for learning. Non-traditional education is characterized by a strong belief that learning may occur in situations and at times which are most suitable to the needs of the students.

Delivery System-Resources — Since learning resources and materials are to be made available in a variety of formats most convenient to individual learners, strong emphasis is given to the use of educational technology as a means of delivering instruction to learners who may be widely dispersed. The concept of "distance learning" suggests that modes of instruction other than face-to-face contact between students and instructors are accepted and valid ways of developing student knowledge, skill and competence.

Faculty — In a system of non-traditional education, a variety of individuals would be called upon to assist students in designing and directing their learning activities. These individuals would be selected primarily on their ability to contribute to the fulfillment of the educational goals of students rather than upon their ability to generate knowledge through research. Institutional faculties would consist of some individuals who might be designated as core or residential staff and others who might be recognized as adjunct faculty with special responsibilities for working with students in off-campus learning situations. Residence faculty would likely be assigned to teaching teams involved in interdisciplinary or cross-disciplinary studies.

Although these characteristics are reflected in many institutional programs, there is a good deal of variation in the practices adopted by individual colleges and universities. Regardless of the degree of variation that exists, however, non-traditional education does commit institutions to provide alternative teaching and learning patterns necessary to accommodate the differences in interests, needs, capabilities and learning styles among individual learners. Although traditional programs may also make provision for these variations, the commitment to non-traditional education uses the concerns of the learner as the major organizing focus of institutional programs.

There are a number of ways that these characteristics are being implemented in post-secondary educational settings. In some sections of the country, open-learning systems have been established which are complex patterns of instructional design coupled with delivery systems in which the planning, dissemination and evaluation of learning materials forms a comprehensive system. Other ways of implementation have been the establishment of new, innovative colleges and universities, some focused on undergraduate education with others being concerned primarily with

graduate instruction. These are usually highly individualized programs of study which may have limited residence requirements and which utilize both resident and adjunct faculty. Probably the most widely accepted pattern of non-traditional education is the external degree. Although there are different approaches to the external degree, all are similar in that they are based on learner needs and they give recognition to a variety of ways by which academic study may be undertaken.

Other institutions have implemented non-traditional education by establishing innovative programs within existing institutional structures. These might involve establishing clusters of learning communities in which students and faculty participate in programs substantially different from those offered to other students in the same institutions. Modification of teaching-learning styles or curriculum patterns in existing courses or programs open to all students is another pattern frequently found in those colleges and universities committed to non-traditional education.

The extent to which alternative learning patterns have been initiated by colleges and universities is indicative of the impact that this movement has had on higher education in the past decade. In spite of these past successes, the future of non-traditional education as a model for institutional reform is still in question. There appears to be several alternative futures for movement and determining which of these alternatives will be most prevalent is likely to be dependent upon the validity of the basic concepts of the movement as well as upon the degree to which institutions of higher education will continue to demonstrate receptivity to change.

Alternative Directions

One possible future of non-traditional education is that the movement will have little significant lasting impact upon the character of post-secondary education in the United States. One position in support of this view is that this form of educational practice is a fad whose time is past and that programs adopted by colleges and universities during the past few years can, at best, only be regarded as a transitory stage in higher education. This is supported by those who believe that the present institutional structure of higher education is too complex, too diversified, and too resistant to change to develop any long-range commitment to principles and programs which differ significantly from those which have been traditionally emphasized.

There have also been concerns raised as to whether learner centered reforms in curriculum and instruction can be successfully applied to all kinds of institutions, or to students in all areas of study. Particular reservations are voiced about the validity of these concepts as they might be applied to programs of students involved in professional or pre-professional study. The adoption of practices consistent with this form of education also necessitates new roles for members of the faculty which places less stress on their participation in research activities and more on their ability to function effectively in a wide variety of professional roles. Faculty resistance to acceptance of these changes in responsibilities could be a serious barrier to the future implementation of non-traditional education. Because of these reasons, the institutional changes that have been made in the past decade may well disappear as colleges and universities revert to more traditional practices. This view of the future of non-traditional education implies an inherent rigidity in the system of higher education which precludes a sustaining commitment to changes which would put the learner as a central focus of curriculum and instructional patterns.

A second view of a possible future for non-traditional education is that the movement will serve as a continuing model for institutional reform as more colleges

and universities adopt reforms consistent with learner centered education. As these reforms become more widely adopted in increasingly diverse ways, there will be a growing recognition of the validity of the concepts upon which the non-traditional education movement rests. This future reflects the strong belief that college and university programs need to be more relevant, more responsive to student needs and expectations and more directly concerned with attempting to provide varying curriculum and instructional patterns in accordance with individual differences. The experiences provided by colleges and universities should give recognition to the value of community as well as residential learning, provide a basis by which the concept of interdisciplinary studies is translated into a meaningful reality, and organize a delivery system which is more clearly consistent with new technology as that technology is able to accommodate the individualized needs of learners.

While non-traditional education is currently recognized as a philosophy of teaching and learning which serves as a guide for institutional reform in a relatively small number of institutions, it is possible that the success generated in these programs will be the impetus for a massive reorganization in the years ahead. This, of course, rests upon the conviction that colleges and universities will recognize that change must come and that the principles of non-traditional education can provide the basic rationale for the change. Through continuous experimentation with the testing of these principles in a variety of programs, new ways will be found to make non-traditional education more applicable to an increasing variety of institutional programs. This view of the future holds that non-traditional education will become the new tradition for colleges and universities in the United States.

There is, however, a third perception of the future direction of non-traditional education. The proponents of this view would support the belief that non-traditional education has had an enormous impact on the characteristics of post-secondary education since a variety of curriculum and instructional reforms have already been adopted by colleges and universities. These reforms have successfully demonstrated that the principles upon which this form of education rests are valid and can serve as meaningful guides to institutional reform. This is not to suggest that non-traditional education will find acceptance in any universal way, but rather that it can serve as one of a variety of options for learning which may be found within any single institutional setting. Thus, some programs within a single institution may well be non-traditional in emphasis while other programs may continue to reflect a more traditional stance. It is also possible that some of the traditional programs may adopt some of the characteristics associated with learner centered education which may result in a new synthesis through curriculum patterns which gives emphasis to the organization of content around problems and issues of concern to the learner, through the introduction of more interdisciplinary studies, or through provision of more individualized learning options for students. If this future becomes reality, non-traditional education would lose its separate identity as a movement as it becomes increasingly acceptable as an alternative form of study within the existing structure of institutions of higher education.

Conclusion

Non-traditional education has had a significant impact on curriculum and instructional programs in the last few years. Although it seems unlikely that those institutions with a prestigious tradition will accept the principles of the movement as a model for reform, neither is it likely that the activity of the past ten years will be abandoned in favor of maintaining the traditional system. It seems more likely that non-traditional education will be used as a basis for providing alternative learning

patterns within the existing structures and, in a few instances, as a model for total reform in some institutional settings. This may be the most realistic future because the system of post-secondary education must constantly seek new patterns in order to survive in a society in which change is the one unchanging element.

BASIC BIFURCATION IN ADULT EDUCATION POLICY AND PRACTICE

Gordon C. Godbey

Abstract

Writing and practice in the professional field of adult education may be divided into two major groupings. One group deals with operations, with "How to Do It", and "What is It?". The other asks whether anything should be done; it asks "Why?". This latter field has traditionally been regarded as "soft", while the pragmatic aspects are "hard". The first group gives directions, data, recommends practices. The second reflects, theorizes, and philosophizes. Friere calls these groups "domesticating" and "liberating".

This article reviews the attention given these two categories in professional writing, and takes a position regarding the relative importance, and the priority of the two divisions. It avers that adult educators unavoidably declare their values, morality, and faith by their choices, both for writing and acting.

As we sit Janus-like, looking back through 200 years of national history and some 130 additional years of pre-national settlement, and simultaneously trying to look as far into the future as reason, hope, and science will light the view, those of us most intimately concerned with formal and informal education have a convenient point from which to pause, view and review. That Americans are now a people with some important, unique aspects can not reasonably be denied. One of these aspects has been historically a concern for learning — a respect for education and for the fruits of applied knowledge.

Our earliest concerns had to be for adult learning, although we also showed early concern for the schooling of children and youth. Survival was the reward for effective learning. It has taken a comparatively long time for the education of adults to become institutionalized, to become a focus for professional study as well as a flourishing practice for some persons from every segment of the population, and under many auspices.

Within the confraternity of adult education there has been, from earliest times, fundamental differences of opinion on which way we should go with the further education of adults. To reduce this area of major difference to rather simple terms, we may say that one group has felt that adult education should concern itself largely with vocational, pragmatic matters; the other group has felt that first attention should go to philosophical, theological, and social matters. As the years went by, one major group gave more attention to techniques, methods and strategies of instruction, with administration, with human learning, with "practical" considerations. Another group dealt more with philosophical underpinnings, with *raison d'être*, with affective matters. Paulo Friere called the two categories "domesticating", and "liberating".*

*Friere, Paulo, "By Learning They Can Teach". *Convergence*, Vol. VI, No. 1, 1973.

About The Author

Dr. Gordon C. Godbey is Professor of Adult and Higher Education, The Pennsylvania State University.

One may observe that this debate over which matters are of first importance is not restricted to adult education. It is, indeed, found in a number of professions. The results are a series of states of balance, of compromises, of fluctuating and uneasy truces among the major figures of adult education and of other professions. One may take comfort in this situation, finding that it is really healthy and normal for a body to have some tensions, so long as they do not become deep stresses.

There are several useful clues to finding what really counts in adult education. One is the data on registrations for different types of adult educational offerings. Another is a review of published research reports. Yet another is a review of where the funding goes.

Registrations should reveal what the adult public wants, if we can safely assume that they have a fair choice between the applied and the theoretical, the "domesticating" and the "liberating". Research reports indicate the concerns of professors, administrators, planners, and teachers.** In higher education, research is unequalled by other activities in obtaining respect, money, honors, promotions, consultancies and other desired tokens. Research which is seen as "practical" has the additional value of regeneration and seeding, rippling out into multiplied gains. Research and writing of a more "liberal" or philosophical case frequently produce little more reverberation than a rose petal dropped down a mine shaft.

In a study of sponsoring institutions of adult education where the percent of all offerings were classified by organization type, and the subject matter offered was classified, indicating what was vocational as opposed to general education, religion, family and home, personal development, public affairs, or recreation and hobbies, Alan B. Knox¹ found vocational outweighing other kinds. Of the categories of institutions which listed vocational as opposed to some other kind, the results from the Johnston NORC study of 1965 were:

	Vocational	Other Types (next highest)
Colleges & Universities	39%	38%
Public Schools	41	19
Business & Industry	79	5
Government	42	26
Private Schools	39	38
Military	52	11

From a study of men in Oakland, California, Knox reported on a study by London, Wenkert, and Hagstrom (1963):

Colleges & Universities	40	33
Public Schools	51	29
Business & Industry	78	11
Private Schools	63	17
Military	62	19

A study by Knox and Videbeck (1963) revealed these data:

Colleges & Universities	43	31
Public Schools	28	28
Business & Industry	73	11
Military	43	29

**Funding, especially of programs whose income, if any, will not support them, shows hope, special interest, and decision based on something other than what the market will sustain.

A report by Edmund De S. Bruner and others² indicated an earlier bias in research: "The present report . . . shows that a large part of the research interest of adult educators themselves has been devoted to patterns of organization and teaching techniques"

An entire issue of the *Journal of Research and Development in Education* devoted to lifelong learning, under guest editor Huey B. Long, calls attention to the need for a better relationship between philosophies, and structures and practices of lifelong learning (adult education).³

Knox, in the same issue, by inference suggests the need for a guiding philosophy or principles when he says, "The adult typically confronts far more gaps (between actual present behavior and a changed behavior that seems more desirable) to be narrowed by continuing education than he can attend to. Priorities must be set, if only by default."

The widely-used *Handbook of Adult Education*, with 31 chapters, has only four which can clearly be put into the "liberating" category. Twice as many deal with vocationalism and the technology of adult education.⁴

The 1972 annual register, *Research and Investigation in Adult Education*⁵ lists two studies as "Liberal Education". It lists 51 under "Instructional Methods". Under "Occupational Education — Industrial Training" there are 34 studies, and under "Continuing Education in the Professions — Career Changes" there are 25 studies reported.

To explore in greater depth the matter of how much effort to devote to what we are lumping together into the practical, pragmatic, and vocational (domesticating) as opposed to what we consider speculative, theoretical, and philosophical (liberating) we may with profit look into the future, and try to see what our world, and especially the U.S.A., will look like. By history's counting, fifty years is not a long time, but for predicting with accuracy the details of the social, political, and material landscape it is indeed a long time. But there are clues a-plenty; those that have eyes, let them see. And those who would prophesy, let them be heard.

Examination of predictions by persons with special knowledge and experience in selected fields may be useful in deciding the kinds of research, study, teaching, experimentation, and thinking which will be most useful in bringing into different and more desirable perspective the entire matter of adult, continued learning, for whatever purposes. If, for example, there is likely to be no effective attempts to contain the human population, and if there is no strong likelihood of war, famine, or pestilence reducing that population, then we must plan for more billions of human beings on Earth. There must be more housing, more clothing, more food, greater coordination of movement about the planet, greater complexity in doing the daily work of the world, more efficient disposal of our wastes, etc.

There may be a gigantic task to be performed in teaching people to accept different foods — foods which they would ordinarily reject, but which will sustain bodily existence if other foods can not be obtained. There may be needs to change the feelings of people about touching each other, about living in such close proximity that they see, hear, smell, bump into each other more than many peoples will voluntarily do today. There may necessarily be great restrictions on the travel of these billions of people; no spur-of-the-moment skylarking off to Aunt Mary's, or on a picnic; no shuffling off to Buffalo.

Note should be taken of the intention of adult educators to accomplish by education whatever needs to be done in these matters. John Dewey believed that only

those changes brought about by education could endure, and adult educators seem to have no real alternative to Dewey's persuasion. Indeed, the alternative to education is force, trickery, or persuasion. It reduces humankind to something less than full responsibility and full humanity, but if it "works" even for only a few years, it appeals to many rulers. Of course, under such conditions of forced or "persuaded" compliance, adult education is either abolished or reduced to servile degradation.

Any extrapolation based on many of the facts of contemporary affairs and life, in the U.S.A. alone, or in the entire world seems destined to be discouraging to anyone except to his Satanic Majesty Lucifer. Aside from the very long-range forecasts of the blazing up of the sun which will scorch the world to a cinder millions of years hence, we have a variety of more immediate matters, any one of which could do us in very nicely. These problems are, it must be observed with regret, made not in Heaven but here, by us. Walt Kelly, we have indeed met the enemy, and he is us!

Mankind has invented numerous technological tools and devices and processes, but virtually all of these are really current extensions and expressions of ideas, processes and trends begun a century or more ago. It is just that we have in the last decade or so pushed these achievements to levels of absurdity and danger. In his book *Beast or Angel?*, Professor Emeritus Rene Dubos, Rockefeller University, sees hope amid the darkness of our overworked, artificially-stimulated desire. But even Dubos admits that any major victory we snatch from the materialists and destructionists will be costly and close.

One contrast between today and tomorrow is in the manner of housing and of clustering of people. Since many authors and researchers agree that the quality of life includes important emotional and spiritual satisfactions, and since these qualities depend in large part on the physical and social surroundings, then the matters of where we live, and with whom, and how closely, and whether we can escape readily are not to be taken lightly. Privacy, Lebensraum, personal space and quietness are very important primal needs of humankind, and must be considered in dealing with the results of our rat-like fecundity. Dubos, among others, predicts the end of the free-standing family dwelling because of excessive cost, lack of space, and probably social unacceptability, but in *A God Within* he suggests the costs to the psyche or soul of those persons uprooted from their native sod.

The issues raised by René Dubos are consequential, although somewhat subtle compared with issues such as the need to discover new techniques of agriculture or industry. When adult educators consider on which side of the ledger the Dubos issues appear, it seems that they belong primarily on the non-technical, or the humane, the theoretical, spiritual, philosophical. But not exclusively. If science shows us how to limit safely human fertility, then we are dealing with the "how" side of the ledger. When we consider whether we *should* limit the human population, we are into the philosophical side of things. If we decide that families should survive in good estate, and have separate, individual dwellings if they choose this form of living, we have decided on the basis of theory, philosophy and perhaps religion. But once such a decision is made, we must turn to science, engineering and technology to give it reality.

This matter of too much space and too many material goods for some of the world's people, and too little for others has attracted other commentators. Moshe Safdie, Canadian architect and author of *Beyond Habitat* and *For Everyone A Garden* believes that in the half-century just ahead the poor nations which have raw materials will jointly attempt blackmail against the industrial nations. The latter, presumably plagued somewhat by their consciences, will retaliate with war until it becomes sufficiently obvious that the gross extremes of having, and having not, are

ethically, morally, and practically unacceptable.

Even within fifty years, and even with a number of non-nuclear wars reducing the population, the division of worldly food, housing, and other goods on anything approaching equity will result in sharp reductions for the top twenty nations, in terms of living standards. The U.S.A., in 1980 fifth in per capita income according to World Bank data, will feel a shock in having to adjust to a true international welfare system, if we achieve that situation. But of the potential shocks, this one may be by all odds the most desirable, for it could be survived, and it could be temporary — if one would consider fifty years temporary. Apparently it will take that long to reduce the world's human freight by non-violent means to manageable size — with everyone cooperating. Meantime, Safdie and other visionaries see new cities and the return of suburban land to farming — largely done mechanically and automatically.

The grand design for super-cities which Moshe Safdie sees in the future raises again two kinds of questions: the "should" and the "how". And when he, among others, states that it is morally, ethically, and even practically unacceptable for us in the U.S.A. to be fat and happy whilst millions in South America, Asia, and Africa are hungry and miserable, and without hope of improvement, he is into philosophy, theory, and the affective domains. Should we agree, and try to bring things into balance so that we are *all* receiving equal shares (which, we are told would mean that we would all be thin and the rich would be much less comfortable, and the poor only insignificantly more comfortable) we would face tremendous tasks of distribution, of conversion, of reassignment of resources which would be based on technology and engineering and science. Whether Safdie or anyone else, believes that the well-to-do of this planet will ever agree freely to a redistribution of their worldly goods, and a reduction of their worldly pleasures is uncertain. This is not to accuse Safdie or others who see the matter as he does of being Mercedes liberals; it is merely to repeat the lessons of history. But for adult education and all of education, to have any impact on the matter, there is required more than continued repetition of what it has offered and done in the past.

In a telephone conversation with editors at *Saturday Review/World*, translated by Antonina W. Bouis and reported in the Anniversary Issue, August 24, 1974, the Soviet scientists and hydrogen bomb developer, Andrei D. Sakharov, forecast flying cities as work territories orbiting the world. Estimating more than seven billion people on Earth by year 2024, Sakharov believes us now to be in "temporary" decline because of the "..... horrible threat" of thermonuclear war. He has, apparently as did Oppenheimer, known sin as a result of his participation in bomb-making. But the Soviet sees a great threat in reduced personal and governmental morality as expressed in great criminal activity, disintegration of ideals (and practices) of law and justice, in terrorism, and drug addiction.

Sakharov raises both the question between what is vocational and what is not, and the question of what is imposed. Building an orbiting city would be a decision of major rank, since it would require diversion of goods, energy, skill, and capital which could otherwise go into improving the comforts of life for millions of people. This assumes consent, either freely given or forced — the latter not unknown in the U.S.S.R. or in other nations. One may believe that current Soviet activities in space are leading toward the flying city, and that adult education, along with the lack of choosing alternative ways of spending the energy, money, etc., must be considered in assessing the undertaking. Whether what is required in this venture is education or training in the Pavlovian or Skinnerian mode may also bear inquiry.

Man the spoiler and destroyer has made nonsense of Lord Byron's poem so resoundingly quoted a few decades ago: "Roll on, Thou deep and dark blue ocean,

roll, Man marks the earth with ruin. His control stops with thy shore” Our inescapable ties with the ocean are vital; it produces climate, absorbs carbon dioxide, gives us much of our oxygen, and was probably the cradle of evolution which produced humankind. Today, in our disregard for our children and any future generations, we have spewed malodorous garbage along our shorelines, littered the bottoms with junk ranging from beer cans to battleships, and coated much of the surface with stinking oil or toxic chemicals. To feed ourselves, or even our cats and other animals, we have nearly made extinct some of the most majestic animals ever seen, and are mining the depleted schools of smaller sea creatures with increased technological efficiency, if with no regard for the survival of enough of these creatures to replace themselves, even if left alone.

The decision whether we shall, nationally and/or internationally, make a major effort which will be in time to save the oceans, and thereby save ourselves may turn on adult education. (Is propaganda what is really needed?) As with other major issues, the two major areas are involved; first, the ideational, and second, the operative. Even if we are “educated” to make the choice to act for survival, we must be “educated” and “trained” to implement the decision. What is the role of those who consider themselves adult educators?

Adult educators already have this point of the article, and could add their own special imprint to it. Unless highly obtuse, we are painfully aware of both the status quo and of the dreadful extrapolations performed for us by many people of prominence in many fields. But there is another side to the matter. Not everyone agrees with the slogan of the 1933 world's fair, The Century of Progress, held in Chicago: “Science discovers, genius invents, industry applies, and man adapts himself to, or is molded by new things” This sincerely-written pitch of the Chicago promoter for unvarnished mechanism has not been universally accepted. There may well be limits to the comprehension of the human brain, even aided by computers and cybernetic devices. There may be limits to the growth of scientific knowledge, heretical as this must sound to some people. There seem definitely to be limits on the human body, so that projections of ages upwards to 200 years no longer seem plausible, if they ever did. There are, it is now claimed in some quarters, determinants of old age and degenerative diseases inextricably built into the genetic and cellular fabric of our bodies. And psychologically, perhaps religiously (if one will admit the thought) there may be a point at which there is a desire for the individual person to have an end to this life on Earth — be it the only life to be aware of, or be it merely a phase in some grander design.

Adult educators may believe that they see the entire picture, and that the choice is neither *techné* nor *humanitas*; it is instead both. But must these educators of adults remain passive, waiting the orders from other agencies, other institutions, leadership? Can educators be actively involved in making the decisions which require their services in implementing them? Are the divisions of interest, and the separations of insight and intellect such within the ranks of adult education that as a field or discipline it can only engage in bickering, temporizing, and indecision? The literature and the meetings of major segments of adult education offer a view of this matter.

The often-quoted study of adult education in the U.S.A. published by Johnstone and Rivera*** in 1965 indicated that the grouping “religious adult education” claimed the greatest participation of any grouping. Adult education, although little of the research and writing in professional journals reflects the matter, must deal with religion, religiosity, and related matters. Since the first person wondered aloud whether there really exist Gods or God, the matter has been debated but with

*** *Volunteers for Learning*, Aldine Publishing Co., Chicago. 1965.

no conclusion satisfactory to all. The efforts of the U.S.S.R. to have done with religion once and for all, and to make true, unquestioning atheists of all its citizens have met with much less than success. And the contemptible reliance on force to secure what it can not get by reason, by persuasion, or other means casts great doubt on its correctness. Even the celebrated science of our time depends on stability, certainty, causality for its existence. And when science asks the final question in the chain of causality, it is troubled by at least one likely answer it gets. What irony for the physicist who, at the very end of his search for all knowledge, finds himself face to face with God! And for the scientists of the mind and personality, how explain the deep self-consciousness, the recurrent longing for life or consciousness beyond earthly life, the occurrence of belief, the desire to believe, in God or Gods? The vision of the Peaceable Kingdom, in such simple form as painted by Hicks, or in the more verbal, complex mode remains to inspire, to charm, and to guide humankind away from a world which could be a vast madhouse or primitive jungle.

Adult education becomes involved in where the world is heading, and what waits for it along the way the moment it lifts its head from the more immediate tasks — its great involvement with the vocational or the recreational. So long as adult education is teaching the "how to's", important as they are, it is not likely to ask the disturbing "why" and "what then" questions. Of course, one possible position is that we can never really understand the forces at work, that history is shaped as much by the unpredictable as by the predictable, and that the sense of choice is an illusion. This is the position of those who have said "We don't know where we are going, but we are on our way!" It may be argued that the rise of the Nazis and Hitler were not predictable, nor the Korean and Viet Nam wars; surely had we had the wit to foresee them, we would have done something to prevent them.

The best of adult educators understand, as Arnold Toynbee did and expressed in *A Study of History*,¹⁰ that when people in mass get a sense of direction and move toward it, history is made, but seldom predictably. We can say that if enough people in each nuclear-bomb-possessing nation demanded that the bombs be destroyed, it would have to be done. If the abusers of power knew with certainty that when the signs of such abuse appeared, the people would rise and turn them out, surely abuses would be less. The decision of one President of the U.S.A. not to try for a second full term, and the resignation of another in disgrace indicate that even in the insulated surroundings of the White House, the power of the people reaches and rules. In other nations the "people" must include sufficient police and military, as in Portugal recently, or there will be great human slaughter.

But adult educators also know that people who assume that they are helpless are, indeed, in just that condition. Those who fatalistically assume that the end of us all will come in dreadful nuclear fire and radiation help to assure that fact. Those who assume that greed, and wrong will always be in control, help to keep it that way. Those adults who accept the implications from the press and television that grim inevitability has us locked on a course of destruction and death are not likely to struggle, to denounce the doom-sayers, and educate for a different future.

The forces in adult education which argue for primary emphasis on the liberal rather than the vocational (if these two categories may be grossly used to separate the "how" from the "why") have a major assignment. It is to work systematically, unsparingly to develop among people in every quarter, of all degrees of understanding, the attitude and proposition that the human species which got itself into the present situation — very pleasant for a comparative few, but deadly jeopardy for all — can reverse the situation. We are sufficiently intelligent, of sufficient good will, and energetic enough to save ourselves. Adult education must help prevent further paralysis of will, must help overcome intimidation, must provide access to plans, to

models, to supports which will sustain people of all sorts.

Although few persons in adult education would suggest that they should, or could, make the major decisions on which their future activities will rest, they do insist that they should be party to these decisions. It will not be done by awaiting engraved invitations, but by active involvement with decision-makers, offering the services of adult education for what needs to be done. But again, the offer is made against the backdrop of values which the educators hold, and which they must not violate. We are not soldiers of the Third Reich, taking any and all orders without questioning. Neither are we Watergate burglars, taking orders which we know are wrong simply because we understand that "The Man" in the White House wants it done.

It may be suggested that more education for adult educators is now in order as the basis for important decisions, on what is of most worth, on what the future should hold. If adult educators are to follow only those directions they condone, they need to be very clear about their own foundations, and on what are the limits of their compliance. Some professors of adult education are fond of saying that they never had a course in adult education in their preparation. We now ask what they retain of the courses they had in ethics, philosophy, the humanities and the arts. It is from these areas that the decisions are made.

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AN ANALYSIS OF THE POTENTIAL OF THE TELEPHONE AS A VIABLE INSTRUCTIONAL TOOL

Charles Koelling and Richard Robinson

Introduction

The importance of the telephone as a vital part of our daily lives is a foregone conclusion. Almost no invention, other than perhaps the automobile, has had as direct an influence on modern society as has the telephone. Without its services each of us would find ourselves a much more isolated individual, lacking a vital ingredient in everyday communication.

Traditionally, the telephone has been used primarily as a medium of communication between two individuals. While this use of the telephone still accounts for a major percentage of operation time today, a number of alternate services are now being developed which have major implications for the educational community.

Perhaps the most significant changes in recent years have been the advances made in the electronic hardware now available for telephone instruction. New telephone equipment allows a great deal of flexibility not only in the number and the size of the groups which may participate but also permitting complex interrelationships of discussion between various grouping patterns. The sophistication in hardware has brought with it a multitude of challenges for those program planners and teachers who see the great potential in the telephone as an instructional tool.

Brief History of the Telephone in Education

Historically, the first use of the telephone as an integral part of an educational program was during the late 1930's (Rao and Hicks, 1972). Typifying a number of later applications of the telephone to instruction, this initial project provided a direct link between special education classrooms and those students who were homebound in the state of Iowa. Since this date a number of references (Paul, 1965; Collins, 1966; Yeomans and Lindsey, 1969; Parker and Monson, 1980) have noted the increased use of the telephone in a wide variety of program applications.

One of the first colleges to use the telephone for instruction on an extended basis was Stephens College, beginning in 1958 (Hartje, 1976). Used primarily at first to bring notable people into the classroom through the telephone as guest lecturers, this program rapidly expanded into the use of telelectures in a variety of course offerings (Burkhart, 1963; Rubin, 1964; Jolly and Madden, 1965). Numerous other colleges and universities quickly saw the advantages of this approach and developed a variety of program activities. The most notable example was and has been to date the University of Wisconsin's Education Telephone Network. Beginning in 1965 with one course offering this system in three years expanded from an enrollment of

About The Authors

Dr. Charles Koelling is Professor of Education and Associate Dean, University of Missouri-Columbia.

Dr. Richard Robinson is Professor of Education, specializing in Reading Education, University of Missouri-Columbia.

192 to 180,000 a year representing 190 different programs of instruction (Parker, 1968).

As originally conceived, most educational telephone networks were designed to be primarily used for instruction related to both credit and non-credit classes. But as the systems grew and the electronic equipment became more advanced the role of these telephone systems also began to change (Parker and Monson, 1980). Rather than simply being used as a part of classroom instruction the typical educational telephone network of today is a vital element in many aspects of the total university program operation. Typical examples of this expanded use of an educational telephone system include:

- Conducting staff conferences
- Teaching short courses
- Following AV presentations with questions and answers
- Bringing guest experts into meetings
- Training staff, clientele, the public
- Conducting a survey
- Distributing crisis information
- Holding committee meetings

(Fredmeyer, 1980)

As noted by Parker and Monson, 1980, "... the general trend for teleconference systems is toward greater refinement and expanded potential." (p. 34)

Effectiveness of Telephone Instruction

Almost from the inception of the use of the telephone for instruction there has been the question of the effectiveness of this approach as opposed to more tradi-

Table 1
Results of Survey on the Use of the
Amplified Telephone System

-
1. In an era of energy consciousness the instructional use of amplified telephone should be:
 - 14 expanded
 - 2 curtailed
 - 1 eliminated
 2. I find instruction via amplified telephone to be:
 - 8 as organized and clear as in face-to-face instruction
 - 5 generally more organized and clear as in face-to-face instruction
 - 4 generally less organized and clear than in face-to-face instruction
 3. I find that in terms of the amount which I learn, it is:
 - 12 the same as face-to-face instruction
 - 1 more than in face-to-face instruction
 - 4 less than face-to-face instruction
-

n = 17

tional delivery systems. A number of research studies have been undertaken in the last few years to answer this question. Using a variety of school settings both in the elementary and secondary schools (Jesser and Clark, 1966; Rookey, et. al. 1971; Gold, 1973) as well as post-secondary institutions (Hoyt and Frye, 1972; Spears, 1971; Conlin and Borich, 1977) the general conclusions have been that the use of the telephone as an aide to instruction has been as effective as traditional instruction and in some cases even shown better results.

Recently a survey, using a graduate class in special education, was conducted related to the perceived effectiveness of a telephone course offered at the University of Missouri-Columbia. (Koelling, 1980) The results of this small survey are reported in Table 1.

In addition opinions were gathered on what these students felt about the use of the telephone for instruction and their suggestions for improvement of this approach. Typical of the responses were:

"I think this is a very good, economical way of instruction and would enjoy having more classes of this kind."

"It is an effective mode of instruction. I do miss the eye to eye contact, but I feel the instructor is of necessity more organized in his presentation."

"Very good — makes education *much* more available to rural areas."

"I feel this is a great way to conduct off campus classes and it gives many people an opportunity to pursue classes which otherwise they would not be able to enroll in."

"Good vehicle for instruction — would suggest more time for discussion."

In general, the students in this class seem to be very receptive to this form of instruction and would like to have additional course work using the telephone.

Management (Operational) Issues

When Mark Hopkins was on one end of a log and the student on the other all that was needed was teacher, a student and a log. As the number of teachers, the number of students and the amount of instructional space and equipment involved increases, logistics become more complex.

In traditional instructional modes, these involve, primarily, scheduling of meeting space and teaching resources and communicating this information to students. All of the logistics involved in traditional instruction are required when using amplified telephone plus a few more. The more important of these are:

1. Scheduling hardware and operators.
2. Arranging for remote monitors, convenors or leaders.
3. Arranging for the identification, transportation and timely distribution or showing of handouts and/or visuals at remote areas.

The first, hardware scheduling is the most straight-forward; however, unless this is done and firmly committed all the rest of the planning is for naught. In most cases this will involve scheduling of a studio and technical operator. However, in some cases the program will originate from a regular phone, thus requiring only technical assistance at the bridging site. In addition, the hardware must be scheduled to be available at the remote sites and adequate telephone jacks installed to accom-

modate it.

Convenors at each remote site are essential for orderly and effective instruction. There are a number of possible roles for the convenor. At a minimum s/he will need to set up the remote equipment and initiate or receive the call. Beyond that, depending on the nature of the program the convenor may serve as coordinator of handouts and/or audio-visual materials, group leader, assistant teacher or ombudsman.

Many, if not all, instructional programs will have handouts, visuals, etc. These are of no value unless they are carefully articulated with the audio instructions. It is imperative, therefore, that they be prepared early, carefully identified for easy reference and mailed or delivered, in advance, to the remote site(s) for use at the appropriate time.

Marketing

The habits of people change slowly. So do their perceptions and expectations. It should come as no surprise that the most difficult part of marketing amplified telephone instruction is getting initial participation. It is also very important that the first experience be a well designed one. Later experiences may be less well done without blame being placed on the method if they are preceded by one or more positive experiences.

Inasmuch as this type of instruction is a new experience for most people the marketing of it should take this into account. In the initial use of amplified telephone, if possible, a course* should be selected for offering which is needed or desired badly by the client group and which is only available remotely in this format. The choice is then to try a new format and get a desired course conveniently or not have it all, rather than having it in a choice of formats. In addition, initial efforts may be more successful if offered in areas not used to having many course experiences available.

Beyond that it would be helpful if a specific course offering could have been preceded by a generalized campaign to build a positive image for amplified telephone instruction, per se, the marketing of particular courses would be enhanced.

It is helpful if a much needed course experience is also one which is an "in vogue" topic so that it is, in part at least, a personalized need as well as a professional or institutional one. Obviously, the course content should be amenable to remote instruction.

It is only after these "basic" issues are considered that informational marketing can be successfully undertaken. Simply put, only a product for which there is a perceived need or want by the consumer (however developed) can be sold irrespective of the amount of information available.

The remainder of the marketing process involves making information available to the right people with the right message. The right people include two categories, those who are to be directly involved in the instruction and those whose influence can affect the decisions of the potential participants. The latter includes supervisors and others who might be either approving or supplying financing. The message to the latter group should be different than that to the potential participants and should emphasize the value of participation to the agency or organization.

*"Course" is used here to mean any instructional experience.

The marketing, then, involves:

1. Selecting a course which has an extra-ordinary need.
2. Selecting a course which is not easily available any other way.
3. Selecting a course which can provide a good initial experience with the technique.
4. Providing clear information to potential students.
5. Providing information to those who can influence potential students.

Public Policy Issues

The advent of advanced communication technology, opens up more options on the one hand, creates some intermediate problems on the other, and if there were a third hand, provides a philosophical dilemma on it.

First, the amplified telephone offers, within limits, a freeing direction. No longer is instruction place bound. Further, this system makes it possible for several people, located in different places to be instructed simultaneously exclusively through a two-way system of audio "classes." (While certain "picture" images are also possible they do not alter the concepts involved in this discussion.) The teacher can "meet" with "enrolled" students in one or more places off campus at the same time without leaving his/her office.

This "freeing" by advances in communication technology makes certain institutional and public policies subject to review. The concept of "service areas" is no longer valid in a geographic sense when applied to course offerings. It costs little, if any, more to make a program available two or three hundred miles further away. If there ever were justifications for instructional service areas based on geography the advent of amplified telephone instruction and other kinds of remote instruction makes this justification out of date. Therefore, the older basis for dealing with territoriality and turf must give way, either to the elimination of the concept altogether, or the alteration of the assumptions and values upon which "territory" is established. The fact that any institution can be anywhere also presents some problems concerning educational quality. These problems will have to be addressed, sooner or later, by accrediting agencies or governing bodies. These are more far reaching than simply "instruction provided from an accredited institution," but must address the factors indigenous to the delivery system as well as the usual components. The potential of remote instruction for tapping markets heretofore unreachable offers temptations for cutting corners, for academic laundering and for diminished quality which cannot be ignored. On the other hand, the development of remote instruction offers the possibility of the availability of greater expertise and instruction from better trained instructors.

While it is not the purpose of this paper to provide an in-depth analysis of all the factors related to territoriality, certainly foremost among such factors must be political considerations, cost-benefit, educational quality, access and public interest. It is the latter which is likely to be overlooked and which some specific attention is addressed.

Monopoly, in any form is rarely in the public interest. The establishment of "territory" does create a monopoly. However, monopoly on a wider scale can also be created, in due time, by the competitive process if the capital investment (resource) requirements to enter the market are large. Over a period of time small or inefficient operators are forced out or bought out until only one or a few remain.

The development of communications technology and instructional technology has made possible the offering of more and more instruction to wider constituencies from fewer sources. It is theoretically possible, then, to offer all instruction from a single source. What is technically possible is not always desirable public policy. Education can be freeing or moulding and shaping. Instruction is always intertwined with value considerations. Therefore, the public interest requires that a sufficient number of instructional sources be maintained to guarantee maximum diversity in the educational enterprise. Any semblance of monopoly can ultimately lead to control of instructional content and approach, and through this, to the development of a monolithic state of affairs, a kind of academic party line which would be inimical to the promotion of free inquiry. Thus, among the most important factors to be considered in criteria for determining whether there is to be "territory" and if so, the criteria for this determination, is the long term public interest.

Summary and Conclusion

The use of amplified telephone represents a viable alternative to face-to-face and other remote instruction which is not only productive in terms of learning outcome, but is judged acceptable, methodologically, to those who participate in it.

However, the effectiveness of its use is dependent, not only upon the content expertise of the instructor, but also upon a carefully fine-tuned system of educational and mechanical logistics and effective marketing strategies.

The current and future use of advanced communication technology offers challenges to current public and institutional policy which should be addressed immediately. Failure to do so will be to the detriment of adequate quality education and effective public policy.

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THE WHEN, WHERE, WHAT AND HOW OF PLANNING INSERVICE AND PROFESSIONAL MEETINGS

Richard Fletcher, Jr. and Margaret S. Phelps

The true measure of the worth of an inservice session or professional meeting lies in the use which participants make of the ideas presented. Potentially outstanding professional growth opportunities are often thwarted by the failure of the target audience to attend. In an effort to determine what arrangements of time, place, and activity were most attractive to educators, a survey of teachers, principals, and supervisors in public school systems of Tennessee was conducted in the Spring of 1979.

A systematically selected sample was drawn from the 1978-79 directory of public schools published by the State Department of Education in Tennessee. The sample consisted of 269 supervisors of instruction and 295 principals. Each principal was mailed two additional copies of the survey and asked to disseminate these copies to two teachers in his school. Pre-addressed envelopes were included but, due to budget limitations, no return postage was available. Returns were received from 143 of the supervisors or 53.2 percent. A total of 103 of the principals returned the completed survey which represents 34.9 percent. The returns from teachers totaled 168 which represents only 28.5 percent. Ten additional responses were received with no group identification. A total of 424 responses were received, representing 36.7 percent of the research sample.

Presentation of Findings

The results from the study revealed information useful in determining when, where, what, and how the respondents felt about inservice professional growth opportunities. Discussion of each of these aspects of planning constitute the body of this report.

When Should We Plan In-Service Programs?

Table 1 presents the responses of Tennessee teachers, principals, and supervisors to items concerning the best time for in-service and other professional meetings. Most teachers preferred released time from school, either in the afternoon (90.5 percent) or all day (92.3 percent). Their third choice was afternoons after the school day (62.5 percent). Least popular were Saturday meetings (6.0 percent). The responses of principals and supervisors were similar to those of teachers although supervisors were somewhat more favorable toward evening meetings during the week and Friday evening — Saturday morning meetings.

Where Should We Plan In-Service Programs?

Table 2 presents preferred locations for in-service and other professional

About The Authors

Dr. Margaret S. Phelps is Chairperson, Department of Administration, Supervision and Curriculum, Tennessee Technological University.

Dr. Richard Fletcher is Professor of Secondary Education and Foundations and Coordinator of the Learning Resources Center, Tennessee Technological University.

meetings as reported by teachers, principals, and supervisors. The first choice of each group was a central location in their school system while the second choice of teacher and principals was their own school. Approximately two-thirds of each group indicated a college or university campus to be a preferred location. The least preferred location for each group was convention centers and hotels in urban areas.

Reported attendance of educators at in-service and professional meetings during 1978-79 is presented in Table 3. The most frequently attended were school system meetings (91.5 percent of total). The second most frequently attended meeting was at the building level (80.2 percent of total). Multi-school system meetings were third in reported frequency for both teachers and principals although a larger percentage of principals (80.2 percent) had attended than had teachers (51.2 percent). Geographic state regional meetings and statewide meetings ranked fourth and fifth for both teachers and principals, but again, a larger percentage of the principals had attended such meetings. Approximately one-fifth of the principals had attended at least one national meeting. At the state, regional, and national level, a larger percentage of supervisors had attended meetings than either teachers or principals. A large percentage (77.6 percent) of the supervisors had attended a statewide meeting. Multi-state regional and state meetings were attended by only 28.7 and 34.3 percent of the supervisors, respectively. Only 5.4 percent of the teachers had attended a national meeting and 20.4 percent of the principals.

What Type of Program is Preferred?

As is shown in Table 4, small group sessions were preferred by teachers, principals and supervisors. Teachers and supervisors preferred small group workshops while the principals' first choice was small group discussions. Slightly more than half of each group marked small group presentations as being desirable. Approximately half of each group favored keynote speakers. The teachers were more positive toward publishers' displays than the administrative groups. Social activities and meal functions were the least popular option to every group.

How Should Credit be Determined?

Incentives provided to teachers, principals and supervisors to encourage attendance at professional meetings are presented in Table 5. The two days personal/professional leave provided by the State of Tennessee was the incentive indicated by more than two-thirds of the respondents. In-service credit for meeting was considered an incentive by more than half of the principals and teachers. Notification of state and regional meetings was an incentive for two-thirds of the supervisors and half the principals but for only a third of the teachers. Slightly more than half of the supervisors reported reimbursement. Professional leave in addition to personal leave was more frequently reported by supervisors (48.3 percent) than by principals (37.9 percent) or teachers (23.2 percent).

Summary and Conclusions

According to the survey data, in-service and other professional meetings should be scheduled during released time at a central location in the school system. The program should be designed around system-wide issues and consist of small group activities if they are to be highly attractive to educators. Professional/personal leave and/or in-service credit were the most frequently used incentives. The supervisors were the only group reporting frequent attendance at regional, state, and national meetings or frequent reimbursement of expenses.

Table 1
Time Preferred for In-service and Professional Meetings
by Teachers, Principals, and Supervisors

Time	Professional Groups			Total N = 414
	Teachers N = 168	Principals N = 103	Supervisors N = 143	
Released Afternoons during school days	152 90.5%	88 85.4%	110 76.9%	350 84.5%
Released full days	155 92.3%	89 86.4%	120 83.9%	364 85.8%
Afternoons after the school day	105 62.5%	61 59.2%	89 62.2%	255 61.6%
Saturday morning	28 16.7%	18 17.5%	21 14.7%	67 16.2%
Saturday all day	10 5.0%	9 8.7%	11 7.7%	30 7.2%
Evenings after school days	28 16.7%	23 22.3%	40 28.0%	91 22.0%
Friday evenings and Saturday mornings	12 7.1%	11 10.7%	20 14.0%	43 10.4%
Other	15 8.9%	11 10.7%	12 8.4%	38 9.2%

Table 2
Location Preferred for In-service and Professional Meetings
by Teachers, Principals, and Supervisors

Location	Professional Groups			Total N = 414
	Teachers N = 168	Principals N = 103	Supervisors N = 143	
Your School	147 87.5%	84 81.6%	93 65.0%	324 78.2%
Central location in your school system	158 94.0%	95 92.2%	133 93.0%	386 93.2%
State park	30 17.9%	22 21.4%	29 20.3%	81 19.6%
College or University campus	114 67.9%	63 61.2%	94 65.7%	271 65.5%
Convention center in urban area	23 13.7%	19 18.4%	32 22.4%	74 17.4%
Hotel in urban area	15 8.9%	14 13.6%	23 16.1%	52 12.6%
Other	3 1.8%	6 5.8%	5 3.5%	14 3.4%

Table 3
In-service and Professional Meetings Attended
by Tennessee Educator in 1978-79

Meeting	Professional Groups			Total N = 414	
	Teachers N = 168	Principals N = 103	Supervisors N = 146		
Building level meeting	124 73.8%	90 87.4%	118 82.5%	332	80.2%
School system meeting	150 89.3%	96 93.2%	133 93.0%	279	91.5%
Multi-school system meeting	86 51.2%	62 80.2%	100 69.9%	248	59.9%
Geographic state regional meeting	61 36.3%	51 49.5%	107 74.8%	219	52.9%
Statewide meeting	40 23.8%	41 39.8%	111 77.6%	192	46.4%
Multi-state regional meeting	11 6.5%	18 17.5%	41 28.7%	70	16.9%
National meeting	9 5.4%	21 20.4%	49 34.3%	79	19.1%

Table 4
Activities Preferred at In-service and Professional Meetings
by Teachers, Principals, and Supervisors

Activity	Professional Groups			Total N = 414	
	Teachers N = 168	Principals N = 103	Supervisors N = 143		
Keynote speakers	71 42.3%	48 46.6%	74 51.7%	193	46.6%
Publisher displays	74 44.0%	29 28.2%	38 26.6%	141	34.1%
Social activities	13 7.7%	11 10.7%	9 6.3%	33	8.0%
Banquet and/or luncheon	14 8.3%	11 10.7%	4 2.8%	29	7.0%
Small group discussion	98 58.3%	83 80.6%	101 70.6%	282	68.1%
Small group workshop	142 84.5%	66 64.1%	106 74.1%	314	75.8%
Small group presentation	96 57.1%	64 62.1%	98 68.5%	258	62.3%

Table 5
Incentives Provided for Teachers, Principals, and
Supervisors to Attend Professional Meetings

Incentive	Professional Groups						Total N = 414	
	Teachers N = 168		Principals N = 103		Supervisors N = 143			
Two days personal/professional leave per year	116	69.0%	69	67.0%	100	69.9%	285	68.8%
Professional leave in addition to personal leave	39	23.2%	39	37.9%	69	48.3%	147	35.5%
Reimbursement of expenses	34	20.2%	26	25.2%	76	53.1%	136	32.9%
Notification of state and regional meetings	63	37.5%	54	52.4%	92	64.3%	209	50.5%
In-service credit for meetings	97	57.7%	56	54.4%	84	58.7%	237	57.2%
Annual leave policy	12	7.1%	11	10.7%	24	16.8%	47	11.4%

BALANCING QUALITY AND ACCESSIBILITY: WHAT IMPACT DOES REGULATION BY A STATE AGENCY HAVE ON OFF-CAMPUS CREDIT PROGRAMS?

Michael A. Falcone and David K. Keymer

The Westchester Study (1978)

In 1977, the New York State Education Department, which had eyed the rapid growth of college-level extension programs in the State in recent years with considerable alarm, commissioned a study of all off-campus credit instruction in Westchester County. "Westchester was chosen for several reasons, . . . high population density, relative affluence, and the presence of a large number of off-campus centers."¹

The study summarized findings of the off-campus credit programs of eighteen colleges and universities which offered instruction to approximately 5000 students at 44 sites in Westchester.² The study showed that five extension centers enrolled over 600 students a semester; one enrolled more than 300 students a semester; the remaining 38 locations were "relatively small, serving a combined enrollment of 1250 students (for an average of . . . thirty-three students each)."³

The programs studied enrolled nearly equal numbers of graduate and undergraduate students.⁴

The authors of the Westchester Study commented favorably on the professional orientation of many of the programs. They said that the presence of the extension programs made many more kinds and prices of college-level education readily available to the residents of Westchester County. But the general tenor of their comments was negative.

- Off-campus centers were inadequately staffed and administered.
- Adjunct instructors were the majority of the faculty teaching off campus. They were generally under-credentialed and under-paid. They were seldom involved in the academic and curricular affairs of the academic departments which determined the subject matter and set the standards for instruction in their teaching disciplines.
- Frequently the academic departments at the main campus did not supervise the activities of faculty teaching in their disciplines off campus. Rather, general administrators were responsible for supervision of instruction. Off-campus instruction was ill monitored; standards were poorly enforced or not enforced at all.

About The Author

Dr. Michael A. Falcone is Dean, Graduate Studies and Continuing Education, College of Technology, State University of New York

Dr. David K. Keymer is Assistant Dean, Graduate Studies and Continuing Education, College of Technology, State University of New York

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• In general, facilities were minimal at off-campus sites. Specifically, library and laboratory facilities were generally inadequate or difficult to access. Students possessed little knowledge of library resources and showed little interest in using libraries.

• Academic counseling was typically non-existent or pro forma.

• In some cases, there was excessive duplication of program offerings. For instance, seven institutions offered the M.B.A. in Westchester County.

• Several off-campus centers violated the standards for class attendance and the requirements for degree programs stated in the Commissioner's Regulations.

Hadley S. DePuy, the deputy commissioner for higher and professional education, cautioned the reader of the study:

Contrary to reports, the Westchester Study does *not* pass judgement on individual programs offered at off-campus sites. Nor does it conclude that any programs are in violation of Commissioner's Regulations. The report does not draw any general conclusions about off-campus education statewide.

However, the report does raise some troublesome questions about academic quality, sound planning and adequate administration of off-campus offerings.¹

The Westchester Study, however, was anything but value-neutral, regardless of the claims of its sponsors. Though the abuses detailed in the study were real and needed immediate reform, the authors believe the report magnified the failures of off-campus instruction and made short shrift of its achievements.

The tale it told, the woes it depicted, and above all, the standards of comparison it set, led the reader to one conclusion: off-campus instruction in Westchester County, and extension instruction across the state, needed reform. It needed to be made more like traditional instruction on the home campus so that academic quality could be maintained. But how much, and at what points, could quality of instruction off-campus be defined by comparison with on-campus instruction? And could quality of instruction so defined be preserved off-campus? These were questions that the authors of the Westchester Study did not raise. Yet until they were raised, the problems confronting off-campus instruction in New York State could not fairly be addressed.

The NYS Education Department Responds (1978-80)

Comments on the conclusions of the Westchester Study were requested by the NYS Education Department from all interested parties by July 1, 1978. The department then began work drafting a new set of regulations governing post-secondary education in New York State. One part of these regulations was concerned with off-campus, credit instruction.⁶ In June and July, 1979, the NYS Board of Regents reviewed the revised regulations. At the end of July, a draft of the proposed regulations was sent to interested parties with an invitation to comment on them at public hearings. After much heated debate and two sets of hearings (September-October, 1979, and March, 1980) the Regulations were approved to take effect on September 1, 1980.

The New Regulations: Content and Rationale⁷

Part 54 of the revised regulations of the NYS Commissioner of Education ad-

dresses the issue of off-campus instruction. The NYS Education Department's response to the conclusions reached in the Westchester Study were the revised regulations. The regulations represent an effort by the NYS Education Department to exercise a greater degree of control over colleges and universities which provide instruction at off-campus locations.

Two major categories of off-campus programs were designated: the branch campus and the extension center. Henceforth, both kinds of sites had to be registered and approved by the NYS Education Department in order to remain in operation.

Branch Campus: The regulations define a branch campus as "a unit of an institution located at a place other than the institution's principal center or another degree granting institution at which the institution offers one or more curricula leading to a certificate or degree. No college or university is allowed to establish or continue to operate such a unit without a master plan amendment approved by the Board of Regents. Institutions who must comply with this regulation will be required to meet the following criteria:

- (a) the conformity of the curricula to be offered at the proposed branch campus with the standards of academic quality at the institution's principal center;
- (b) the need as demonstrated by students or special groups of students, i.e. military personnel and people located in sparsely populated areas, potential employers of graduates, the institution and the public;
- (c) the impact such a unit would have upon the institution and upon other institutions in the region and the State as a whole; and
- (d) the compatibility of the proposed branch campus with the Regents Statewide Plan for Postsecondary Education.

The regulations also address the question of one institution offering courses leading to a degree or certificate on the campus of another degree-granting institution. These cases will also require a master plan amendment and prior approval by the Commissioner.

The intent of the Article dealing with branch campuses is an effort on the part of the Regents to establish a system of quality control. The Board of Regents will be expecting such units to have adequate administrative and support staffs located on-site. In addition, a library which supports programs offered at the branch campus will be required.

Extension Center: Under the revised regulations, an extension center is defined as a "unit of an institution located at a place other than the institution's principal center or another degree granting institution, at which the institution does not offer any curricula leading to a certificate or degree, but at which the institution either conducts more than fifteen courses for credit or has more than three hundred-fifty course registrations for credit in any academic year.

The NYS Education Department prohibits the establishment of a new extension center after September 2, 1980, or the continued operation of an existing center after September 2, 1981, unless the institution has applied for and received approval of the center by the Commissioner of Education.

The criteria for approval are:

- (a) the impact of the extension center upon the institution offering courses, in-

cluding its impact on the quality of academic curricula registered at the institution;

- (b) the need or demand for the extension center and for the courses offered there for credit from the point of view of students or special groups of students including military personnel and people in sparsely populated areas, potential employers of the students completing those courses, the institution, and the public;
- (c) the impact of the extension center upon other institutions in the area and in the State as a whole; and
- (d) the compatibility of the extension center with the Regents Statewide Plan for Postsecondary Education.

The following off-campus programs are exempted from the regulations concerning registration and approval of sites:

- (a) units of New York institutions located outside the state or on federal territory;
- (b) clinical or field curricula, or facilities which are required as a part of a curriculum but not available on the main campus of an institution;
- (c) college courses offered in a secondary school;
- (d) college courses offered at correctional facilities;
- (e) college courses offered on an Indian reservation; and
- (f) other off-campus credit courses which the Commissioner determines warrant exceptional treatment.

A third category identified by the Regents but not subject to the requirements of registration is the extension site. An extension site is defined as a unit of an institution located at a place other than the institution's principal center or another degree-granting institution at which the institution does not offer any curricula leading to a certificate or degree, and at which the institution conducts no more than fifteen courses for credit and has no more than three hundred-fifty course registrations for credit in any academic year. This provision was an effort by the Regents to include credit courses offered by an institution at other locations where special needs might arise, but where there is no intent to offer a series of courses on a long-term basis. While all locations would not require registration and prior approval by the Commissioner, they would have to be included in the periodic reports to the NYS Education Department.

The new regulations will require institutions to maintain records of all locations where credit courses are offered other than on its main campus or at branch campuses, with the number of course registrations and courses offered at each location per term. This requirement will allow the NYS Education Department to monitor the size of various off-campus programs in an effort to assure compliance with the branch campus and extension center provisions.

In addition to the revised regulations governing off-campus instruction, the Regents determined that the old provision addressing academic standards required more stringent enforcement. Specifically singled out were faculty and support services. The Regents declared that;

to foster and maintain continuity and stability in academic programs and policies, there shall be in each division of the institution a majority of facul-

ty who are full time at the institution, except when the Commissioner determines that the nature of the educational program and the expertise it requires justify a departure from this requirement. At least one faculty member teaching in each curriculum in a bachelor's degree shall hold an earned doctorate in an appropriate field. All faculty members who teach within a curriculum leading to a graduate degree shall possess earned doctorates or other terminal degrees in the field in which they are teaching or shall have demonstrated, in other widely recognized ways their special competence in the field in which they direct graduate students.

In reviewing an application to establish a branch campus, the Regents will require that all programs offered at the proposed branch campus conform to established standards of academic quality. The institution will be required to:

- (1) provide classrooms, faculty offices, auditoria, laboratories, libraries, audio-visual and computer facilities, clinical facilities, studios, practice rooms, and other instructional resources sufficient in number, design, condition, and accessibility to fulfill the needs of the curricula offered at the center;

- (2) provide any equipment necessary to support instruction, research, and student performance, sufficient in quantity and quality;

- (3) provide libraries that possess and maintain collections sufficient in depth and breadth to support the mission of the institution and each registered curriculum. Libraries will be required to be administered by professionally trained staff supported by sufficient personnel. Library services and resources must be available for student and faculty use with sufficient regularity and at appropriate hours to support the mission of the institution and curricula it offers; and

- (4) demonstrate that it possesses the financial resources necessary to accomplish its mission and to fulfill the purposes of each registered curriculum.

In an effort to encourage innovation, the Regents allowed for a waiver of individual requirements, with prior approval, in order to provide flexibility in special situations and to permit experimentation with new modes of instruction. The Regents renewed an earlier provision waiving all program registration standards, (except for those leading to certification or licensure) for a three-year period under certain conditions. Two conditions must be met in order to receive a waiver of registration:

- (1) the proposal must contain a detailed statement of the methods of assuring quality; and

- (2) the proposal must contain a plan for internal evaluation of the experiment.

The revised regulations described above formalize State policy governing the development and administration of off-campus instruction. They represent an effort by the NYS Education Department to invoke their policing authority as the State's education regulatory agency in order to protect the consumer from the worst abuses of the past and to ensure a guaranteed standard of quality as it relates to off-campus instruction.

The Response to the Regulations

The authors surveyed twelve campuses in New York State; six public and six private. Officials at ten institutions responded. Those selected were all actively engaged in comprehensive extension programs.

The respondents were asked four questions:

1) What is the scope of your off-campus operation?

Examples of answers ranged from one institution which had one-half of its total graduate enrollment off-campus; to another who had seven or eight sites, many located in industrial plants; to institutions that had numerous sites which varied in terms of size and number each semester.

2) Will the new regulations necessitate your having to file for branch campus or extension center status?

Again, examples included one institution which will be required to register for three branch campuses and two extension centers in order to maintain current operations; to another institution whose programs offered in-plant could be seriously impacted. One college reported that future requests for off-campus courses will no longer be honored.

3) How will the regulations change the operation, and or, administration of your off-campus program?

One-half of the colleges studied indicated that their full-time/part-time faculty ratios conformed to the new regulations.

However, others stated that they will be required to change existing policy. In terms of providing adequate support services for off-campus courses, i.e. library, advisement, etc., the study indicated that a majority of the colleges were in violation of the new regulations.

4) What concerns you the most about the implementation of the new regulations? Officials surveyed expressed the following concerns:

- future program development could be seriously affected.
- lack of flexibility in an institution's ability to respond to an identified need. The length of time required for approvals will inhibit future program development, i.e. service to 'publics'.
- regulations will add to bureaucracy and to paperwork.
- regulations are mechanical attempt to deal with a 'perceived' problem.
- regulations might later be extended to programs offered at military installations.
- lack of clarity in regulations. It is not clear how NYS Education Department will interpret the regulations.
- how will colleges deal with special requests?
- regulations may prevent courses from being offered in low population areas; could impact distance traveled and cost of energy.
- colleges will be forced to use less part-time faculty, many of whom add considerable expertise to career and technical programs.
- regulations could stop growth of off-campus programs.

Separate queries were made to officials at the NYS Education Department and at the Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools.

The New York State Education Department has stated that "it will review

carefully the information submitted with each application (for a branch campus or extension center). It may, in some circumstances, request additional information, and it may decide to make a site-visit to a prospective (or existing) center. In every case where the center appears to meet academic quality standards, the Department will canvas other institutions in the region of the proposed center to determine their assessment of the center's likely impact upon existing programs and institutions."

The primary planning issue which the Regents will use to determine the validity of an off-campus center will be whether the establishment and operation of a given center serves the Regents goals for post-secondary education. Specific criteria include:

1) *Accessibility*: Is the purpose of the Center to expand access? To what degree does it guarantee flexibility to meet new and changing needs?

2) *Diversity & Choice*: Will establishment of the proposed center expand the range of program offerings or will it harm existing institutions in the area?

3) *Effective Use of Resources*: Does the proposed center represent an effective use of the State's post-secondary education resources? Does the sponsoring institution have sufficient resources to support the additional activity without weakening existing programs?

Officials at the Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools indicated that their accreditation teams will be closely reviewing off-campus instructional activities of colleges and universities within their region. In addition, they will be requesting the submission of an institutional data summary report which will identify branch campuses, extension centers, etc. Instruction offered at off-campus sites will be required to conform to established guidelines developed by Middle States.

Conclusion:

The author's survey showed a general concern for the preponderantly negative effect that the new Commissioner's Regulations could have on off-campus credit instruction in New York State. Most of the interviewees felt that off-campus programs needed careful monitoring, but they doubted that the NYS Education Department was the proper agency to do the job.

Institutions have already devised strategies for complying with the regulations that run the gamut from the purely reactive (ignoring them until compliance is forced on them) to the deliberately responsive (planning to meet the challenge of the regulations); and from optimistic to pessimistic. Some feel that the NYS Education Department will find it difficult to monitor the State's off-campus programs in any more than a sporadic and superficial fashion. They assume — or is it a hope — that the department will interpret the regulations broadly as a result, and that compliance with the effective standards promulgated will be an easy matter to achieve.

Others are less hopeful. They feel that the NYS Education Department intends to regulate collegiate off-campus credit instruction in the state with as much rigor as possible. And in their opinion, the past record of the department gives little reason to assume anything but the worst from such regulation. They believe it will be insensitive and it will be inflexible. They expect to see very little sympathy for variance, and thus for diversity.

By and large, colleges and universities in this second group have already begun to plan for compliance. They are closely examining their existing off-campus offerings. They plan to reduce, even postpone, growth off campus for the present. Most

of them intend to request the least restrictive designations for their off-campus sites in order to reduce the burden of compliance with the provisions of the regulations concerning staff, facilities and services. They intend to reduce the number of courses and course enrollments at their larger sites, and move other sections elsewhere where they can be reported as separate sites. This last action is a purely mechanical move. It has no pedagogical or programmatic justification, but the regulations may make it expedient to move course locations around in this way in the future. One institution surveyed has plans to move two courses, which are part of a total degree program which it offers on site, from its regular location to an adjacent building. Is such a solution really desirable or acceptable to anyone?

There is no ready solution to the problem of reducing the part-time/full-time faculty ratio for some schools, short of seriously reducing the number and range of their extension course offerings. Nor is the use of a large number of adjunct instructors always undesirable in programs which are overwhelmingly career-oriented.

The only provision of the regulations touching on facilities and services which is likely to cause hardship to several of the institutions surveyed is the specification concerning library facilities and services. It is not an insuperable problem, however, to arrange for adequate library facilities off campus, save in small population centers. Even the few institutions affected by this requirement admit that there is very little justification for offering a college-level program without adequate library facilities. It is expected that the NYS Education Department will require all extension centers and branch campuses to upgrade their services and facilities within the next two years, and the department will monitor compliance carefully.

A very serious problem is that no one knows how rigorously these regulations will be enforced nor what standard of compliance will be demanded by the NYS Education Department. No one knows what resources the Regents are going to bring to bear on the issue — how much manpower, what bureaucracy, what sanctions. No one is eager to be the first to call the NYS Education Department to find out the answers to specific questions about the interpretation of the rules. There is a general feeling that the institutions which call the department's attention to their concerns are the first ones to suffer from the attentions of the state. As a result, continuing educators in New York State float in a sea of surmises and hopes, save for a few institutions in the state which have traditionally enjoyed a special relationship with the NYS Education Department. It is not an environment conducive to productive planning.

What will be the consequences of the implementation of the new regulations? Clearly the most serious abuses of instruction will be prevented. Quality of instruction will be protected, although it may be in a singularly heavy-handed and cumbersome way. Score it a *qualified plus* on the side of quality. But already some institutions plan to reject additional requests for courses and programs from new client groups. They feel that they will not be able at present to fulfill these requests and remain in compliance with the regulations. Securing approval for the offerings may take too long to make the effort worthwhile for them. Score it a *decided minus* for accessibility.

If the new regulations are enforced rigorously, with little flexibility — as some past regulations have habitually been enforced — it is likely that the institutions of higher learning in New York State will no longer be able to compete off campus on even terms with the other providers of adult education in the state. Who is the loser in that case? It is the very consumer of education that the regulations were established to protect.

Footnotes

1. *A Study of Collegiate Off-Campus Centers in Westchester County*. (Albany, 1978), p. 1. (Hereafter cited as Westchester Study.)
2. By contrast, five years earlier in 1972, only three institutions offered college-level courses off-campus in Westchester.
3. Westchester Study, p. 2.
4. *Ibid.* If one large undergraduate center is excluded from the calculations, the ratio changes to 4/1 in favor of graduate enrollments. Thirteen of 18 institutions studied offered graduate programs in Westchester County. "Off-Campus activities in Westchester County have a strong graduate orientation when compared to college enrollments statewide."
5. H.S. DePuy, letter of April 20, 1978, accompanying the *Westchester Study*.
6. Revisions in Parts 50 and 52 were concerned with the registration of post-secondary credit programs. A new Part 55 dealt with non-chartered proprietary institutions authorized by the New York State Regents to confer degrees.
7. All citations which follow are from Part 54 of the revised regulations of the NYS Commissioner of Education (1980).

EFFECTS OF H.I.P. PROGRAM ON ATTITUDES TOWARD PROFESSORS

Carl C. Fehrle, Neila Pettit and Terry Ten Brink

The pervasive mood among many schoolmen in the early 1970's was one of bafflement and confusion. Throughout the decade preceding, schooling in America had been under more or less continuous assault. This new brand of educational criticism in the sixties was sometimes bitter and often abusive but certainly unprecedented. Schools were assailed by critics for being joyless prisons, inhumane, alienating, and profoundly miseducative. Teachers, it was claimed, were guilty of stifling curiosity, discouraging creativity, and in general suppressing children's natural desire for learning. The complaints seemed endless. At the root of the problem, the argument ran, was the failure on the part of an uncaring educational establishment to think through what made for truly effective instruction and meaningful learning.

Coming hard on the heels of an era when schools had been criticized for rapid curricula, anemic standards, and neglect of basics, the humanistic critique of institutionalized education left many people bewildered. Fundamental changes did indeed seem called for, but it was by no means clear what shape future reform would assume. For some, the call of deschoolers to abandon formal schooling altogether offered a certain plausibility. For others, the answer seemed to lie with "open education," with open-space classrooms, individualized curricula, and new techniques emphasizing tutorial and small group instruction.

According to the research, students in teacher education programs have a tendency to become more "progressive" in their attitudes while they are taking the courses with the University professors. However, this positive attitude is reversed once regular teaching is experienced. Shipman emphasizes this by suggesting that the changes that do occur during the University classes are only superficial. (Hogben, Petty, 1979) Perhaps we need to examine the attitudes of students toward their professors while in the classes.

As students engage in the learning activities, their attitudes toward their professors do appear to be important. Positive attitudes can motivate the students to listen better, think creatively, and do their assignments with greater enthusiasm. In one study (Bixby, 1978) the students described in great detail incidents when their teachers humiliated them in front of their classmates, when the teachers hurt their feelings, and when they thought the teachers were unfair with them. In fact, Bixby stated:

About The Authors

Dr. Carl C. Fehrle is Professor of Education, University of Missouri-Columbia. He holds dual appointment in the College of Education and Continuing Education.

Dr. Neila Pettit is Professor of Education, Department of Curriculum and Instruction, University of Missouri-Columbia.

Dr. Terry Ten Brink is Professor of Education, Department of Educational Psychology, University of Missouri-Columbia.

They described the most effective teachers as those who related well to children — who took a personal interest in the individual child and who stimulated and motivated children to learn while recognizing each child's self-worth. They emphasized their feeling that the kind of a person the teacher is is more important than what is taught.

A recent study (James and Chopin, 1977) on the characteristics of a "good" teacher reports 63 percent of the students ranked "interested in and sympathetic toward pupils as individuals" as the second most important characteristic of a good teacher. They rated this characteristic above "ability to present the subject so that pupils understand and learn." The fifth highest characteristic listed for a "good" teacher was "teaches in an interesting way. Inspires pupils with enthusiasm and confidence so they want to learn," was marked by 40 percent of the students. All of these had a much higher rating than the tenth ranked characteristic, "A thorough knowledge of the subject being taught," which was marked by 28 percent of the students.

(Abel, 1976) "A key factor in the reasons given for liking a particular content area was the teacher. The teacher's concern and extra help seemed to be of great importance to the student and to his liking a particular course — the teacher cared."

The importance of teacher attitude (Litherland, 1978) is reinforced by stating, "A teacher's attitude about self, the importance of worth of students, his 'mission in teaching,' discipline and the community all have a direct relationship with a successful teacher."

Research on this topic is limited, but other articles bring out the importance of having the professor treat the students with dignity and respect as a person; being supportive, open and facilitative; and human beings that care to foster excellence as a notable worth. This present study is an attempt to find out whether an entire program can effect the above kinds of professor-student relationships.

In 1974 the United States Office of Education announced as one of its major thrusts the promotion of "changes in teacher training institutions which will prepare teachers better to promote positive growth and development in young people and to intervene in self and socially destructive behavior in young people." In other words, one partial answer to alienation and social fragmentation lay with a type of schooling more properly appreciative of individual differences, affective growth, and the need for positive self-images among young people. Basic educational change in turn would require a new breed of teachers — and teacher-educators — more fully responsive to these imperatives.

During this same period faculty representatives of the College of Education at the University of Missouri-Columbia began meeting with members of the Columbia Public School District to discuss the possibilities of creating an alternative program for the preparation of elementary teachers. Eventually a special committee was formed to plan and implement a program based on a model adapted in part from Charles F. Kettering Foundation's I D E A (Institute for the Development of Educational Activities) Change Program for Individually Guided Education (IGE). The basic goal was to develop a truly "humanistic" teacher education program.

At the very outset it was agreed that all participants in the new program — faculty, students, and public school personnel — would have to work together cooperatively to insure its success. Moreover, it was felt essential that all persons involved would have to be volunteers; coercion had no place in the type of program contemplated.

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There followed a series of special retreats and workshops during which the outlines of the program and its unique features gradually took shape. Early in the planning process, a set of "We Agree" statements, which still serve as program guidelines, was formulated and adopted.

Briefly, the basic structure of the new HIP ("Humanizing, Individualizing, Personalizing") program is a Learning Community. Its members include students, faculty, public school supervisory personnel, and cooperating teachers from the local Columbia School district. Virtually all decisions regarding basic objectives to be emphasized, all planning and assessment functions, and instructional work, take place within the Community. Insofar as possible, all decisions on a given issue are arrived at through a process of open discussion until an operational consensus is achieved. All members of the Community are actively involved. Only essential administrative and logistical questions are decided upon by the program's director.

HIP instruction is offered in three 16-semester-hour blocks, which are normally taken over a three-year period. Participating students spend approximately one-third of each class day working as an aide in an elementary school. When not on field assignments, students concentrate on the specific set of content areas offered in the classes organized for each block. Block I emphasizes methods courses in educational psychology, literature, science, physical education, and reading; Block II, methods courses in language arts, social sciences, mathematics, music, art, and psychology; and Block III is organized in measurement and evaluation, educational foundations, organization and administration, and physical education. All academic areas required in the regular elementary teacher preparation program plus several specialized areas are represented within the HIP Learning Community. Previously existing courses were not simply transferred to HIP; each was reworked extensively to emphasize small-group discussion, individual projects, alternative grading option, and self-paced learning. In Block III, concentrated coursework occupies one-half of the semester; student teaching takes up the remaining half.

In order to maximize flexibility in program planning, the basic HIP design calls for Blocks I and II to be repeated for two semesters and for Block III to be offered again the following two semesters. Students typically begin with Block I, but the design permits a student to enter Block II, providing previously required courses have been completed under the regular organizational format.

HIP stresses close working relationships between faculty advisors and student advisees. Each professor assumes primary responsibility for planning and guiding his or her advisees through a coursework pattern. The advisement function is made to serve as a natural extension of more conventional teacher-student relationships, but it also encompasses program planning and assessment, supervision of field experiences, and personal counseling. Advisors meet with their advisees weekly. Typically, more time is spent on reinforcing a close personal relationship than on academics. Virtually all students are assigned their first or second choice for an advisor. Teacher-student interaction is also facilitated through social functions and periodic retreats sponsored by the overall Learning Community.

The HIP program has operated in an open-space classroom since its inception. In 1977, however, the program was re-located in an expanded and more attractive facility where all instruction is located, where Learning Community meetings are held as well as conferences, and where outside visitors can be entertained. The HIP facility is often used by participating students as a place for study and informal learning.

The overall objectives of HIP is to produce effective, self-confident elementary teachers, who, through an individualized field-based program emphasizing model-

ing, will have acquired the necessary knowledge and competencies to exercise leadership in the profession.

Consistent with this fundamental orientation, the HIP program is conceived, first, as a process for individualizing, personalizing, and humanizing learning by tailoring instructional approaches to individual differences rather than requiring all prospective teachers to learn in the same way and at the same pace. Secondly, it is conceived as a process for continuous pre-service improvement, making it possible for prospective teachers to evaluate their own performances in a clinical context, alter their classroom behavior where indicated, and advance toward successively higher levels of effective teaching.

The success of any innovative alternative program such as HIP requires that all participants involved be enthusiastic supporters of its underlying philosophy and dedicated to its continuing success. Consequently, as mentioned earlier, all HIP personnel — students, faculty, cooperating teachers, and public school supervisory persons — are volunteers. Faculty members representing the various elementary curricular areas form the core of the program's instructional design team. Each has benefited from continuing in-service education to assist in implementing the program and contributing to its on-going success. However, faculty membership in the HIP Learning Community is not restricted to those directly involved in instruction. Persons representing the Office of Education Field Experiences, the office of the Dean, and other departments within the College of Education at the University are likewise involved, in varying degrees. Moreover, public school personnel regularly serve as consultants, participants in community meetings, and resources at special conferences and retreats.

The faculty presently includes the program director, eight professors, five associate professors, four assistant professors, one instructor, and five graduate teaching assistants. External personnel providing special expertise and consultative services include deans, department chairpersons, other university faculty members, and practitioners from the surrounding public school systems.

The first group of students entering the program (Winter, 1975) was composed of 80 freshmen and sophomores interested in majoring in elementary education. Since that time, 25 to 35 students have been selected for the program each year. Applications are received once students have had an opportunity to review HIP and its objectives during their first course in professional education. Those accepted have been screened to determine the strength of their commitment and the likelihood of their being able to complete the program successfully. They have also met the admission criteria for a regular degree program in the College of Education. In addition, HIP candidates are required to interview and discuss their decision with a faculty and a student member of the Learning Community prior to acceptance into the program.

Aiding experiences are an integral part of the total HIP program design and are heavily emphasized. In order to implement the objective of earlier, expanded field experience directly correlated with basic theory, the Learning Community required that faculty-advisors who offer instruction also assume responsibility for the supervision of their advisees' classroom practice. Since HIP students are in a classroom working with children at the same time they are enrolled in methods courses, there are ample opportunities for them to relate basic theory to its practical applications, and vice versa. Under the current plan, student participants serve as classroom aides for at least two hours a day for one semester during the sophomore year and one semester during the junior year. Full-time student teaching is reserved for the senior year. Experience has shown that the often-repeated demand for more field ex-

periences in a teacher education program is feasible without compromising its academic rigor, and, further, that it is both desirable and possible to integrate instruction in basic educational theory with opportunities to test such theory in practice. The overall impact of the HIP design is to encourage prospective teachers to see classroom teaching as a natural outgrowth of, and the "testing ground" for educational theory.

The HIP program also offers an instructive model for self-renewing change. Crucial to the success of this model is a clear, explicit statement of objectives to which all participants are committed. Of equal importance is the process of "open" decision-making and assessment whereby new innovations are tried out, proposed changes are tested and evaluated, and future programmatic emphasis hammered out.

Thirdly, HIP offers a blueprint or exemplary model for democratic planning and shared authority. It represents a viable alternative to hierarchical administrative structures whereby vertical control emanates "from the top" and filters downward. On the contrary, the history of HIP demonstrates that teacher-educators, public school practitioners, administrators, and students *can* work together cooperatively; that shared authority and responsibility are possible; and that despite differences in professional orientation or perspective, experience, and maturity, each group can make an effective contribution to the design and operation of a defensible teacher education program.

Therefore, those students involved in this alternative program receive greater attention from their professors than those students in the traditional program within the same College of Education, University of Missouri-Columbia.

The feedback from both graduates of HIP and their administrative employers concerning this program has been most positive. In fact, requests for the HIP graduates to the Teacher Placement Office have increased each year. Superintendents and principals have endorsed HIP graduates because of their expertise and ability to perform as veteran teachers.

If the above described program is indeed meeting its goals, the attitudes of the students toward their professors should be positive. Other aspects of the program have been evaluated with specific positive effects, but attitudes toward professors have not previously been measured in this program. In order to test that hypothesis, an attitude scale was designed and administered to the twenty-three HIP students and to a comparable control group of twenty-three. Members of the control group were at the same point in their program as the HIP students and were enrolled in non-HIP sections of the same courses in which the HIP students were enrolled.

The attitude scale consisted of seventeen negative and seventeen positive statements about professors. Students responded to each statement on a Likert (strongly agree to strongly disagree) Scale. The instructions directed the students to respond according to their general impressions of *all* of their professors for that semester.

Below are sample statements showing positive statements and their negative counterparts (N.B. positive and negative statements in a pair were not placed adjacent to each other in the instrument used).

My professors generally:

POSITIVE: show a great deal of concern for me as a person.

NEGATIVE: appear to have little concern for individual students.

POSITIVE: help me feel like a worthwhile contributing class member.

NEGATIVE: make me feel as if I don't want to participate in class.

POSITIVE: make me feel good about myself.

NEGATIVE: make me feel uncomfortable and unsure of myself.

POSITIVE: are the kind of instructors I would use as models for my own teaching.

NEGATIVE: use teaching techniques I hope I will never use with students.

POSITIVE: are open to student ideas and suggestions.

NEGATIVE: are accepting of student ideas only when they match their own.

Adjusting for the negative statements, mean scores were computed for the HIP group and the corresponding control group. The HIP group mean was 138.2 (S.D. = 14.9) and the control group mean was 107.1 (S.D. = 19.2). The difference was statistically significant to $t = 6.13$ sig < .001.

This brief study suggests quite strongly that a program like the HIP Program at the University of Missouri-Columbia can have a positive effect on a student's attitudes toward his professors. Many questions remain. Which aspects of the program are contributing most to this effect? What difference, if any, does this positive attitude have on achievement, self concept, confidence to enter the teaching professions, etc.? Can this kind of approach be developed and used successfully in other programs? Preliminary answers to these questions are now being sought and future studies should contribute further to our understanding of the variables which make teacher-education programs successful.

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OFF-CAMPUS: BEYOND THE CARNEGIE UNIT!

John J. Diabal, Frank W. Lanning and Leonard Pourchot

In the decade of the 80's most private and public universities are increasingly cognizant of the potential needs and demands of both traditional and non-traditional students for extension or off-campus courses. Increasingly, the "step-child" of the universities, the off-campus courses, can be expected to command more educational significance in the coming decade. The traditional concept of the university as a "community of scholars" needs to be broadened to a "broader community of concerned learners" and reflect, to some extent, some goals of a "college of the community." This trend seems to imply that off-campus courses must meet the goals and objectives of an increasingly differentiated student body make up of both traditional and non-traditional adult students.

Until recently the delivery of extension or off-campus courses could be expected to be done in a conventional: (1) time frame, i.e., 2½ hours for a semester for three credit hours; (2) pedagogic type (lectures, textbook readings, discussions, and a few visual aids); and (3) expectation that these courses might not be of the same quality as courses offered on the main campus. The "educational market" no longer offers the luxury of a seller's market. The competition for decreasing numbers of college students and increasing variety of needs for non-traditional students can be expected to increase in both the private and public sector of higher education. Some of the conventional expectations stated above will need to be modified. Innovative and differential course offerings, teaching strategies and scheduling will be needed to make extension or off-campus offerings a viable part of the expanded educational experiences of higher education.

Student Needs: I

Demands of ongoing careers, family responsibilities and transportation costs are a few of the concerns that cause many students who want to pursue advanced degrees to look increasingly to off-campus alternatives to meet their needs, as well as, hopefully, the requirements of a quality program.

The Problem

Colleges and universities, fearful that the quality of campus courses cannot be matched in off-campus courses, limit their course offerings.

About The Authors

John J. Diabal, Jr., Ed.D., Kansas University, Professor of Curriculum and Instruction and Graduate Adviser, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL

Frank W. Lanning, Ed.D., North Texas University, Professor, Learning and Development, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL

Leonard Pourchot, Ed.D., University of Northern Colorado, Professor, Learning and Development, Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, IL

Hypotheses (Tenative Solutions)

While research is limited, Hoenes and Chissom found that with adequate preparation and support, there was no significant difference between the performance of "on" and "off" campus students to grasp the abstract aspects of course content. With the exception of some specialized and advanced technical or scientific courses requiring elaborate facilities it becomes more difficult for universities to insist or rationalize that off-campus courses cannot match the quality of on-campus courses. It becomes reasonable, then, that a greater portion of a university's degree programs and courses can be offered to students without the stigma of "but is it quality?"

Students Needs: II

There is an increasing number of adults, 24 to 80, who are expanding the educational life space with their growing numbers and varieties of educational goals. These objectives include such a diversity of things as career guidance, new career skills, recreational skills, aesthetics, rediscovering the "Great Books tradition," craft skills, and parenting skills with the only limits being the limits of imagination and knowledge.

The Problem

Can a "community of scholars" enlarge their educational life space to include these non-traditional students.

Hypothesis

While some elitist universities may still find it difficult to "dilute" their community of scholars with these non-traditional students, it becomes more apparent that they may need to take the educational responsibility to serve these non-traditional students. The pursuit of knowledge, at whatever level of knowledge, is one of the few processes that can bring satisfaction to persons living in a dynamic society which demands constant adaptive behavior.

Student Needs: III

Responsibilities, problems and change for vocations such as teaching, community health, business, and others do not always allow for the luxury of a full semester's course. Educational, problematic and technical demands of careers are increasingly influencing the student's need for flexible scheduling and credit to cope with their career demands. Non-traditional students as well as traditional university students are looking for flexibility of scheduling and format that seems more compatible to their life-style and career needs.

The Problem

Traditional full service 16 week (semester) off-campus courses for three credit hours are becoming less viable to the educational needs of both traditional and non-traditional students.

Hypotheses

Examination of many catalogues of colleges and universities shows a pattern of change that is occurring. Some examples of this change are:

1. Intensive weekend courses for full credit allow students whose working hours do not match traditional time schedules to keep pace, educationally, with those students who could attend traditionally scheduled courses.

2. A variety of mini-courses (for non-credit or 1 to 3 hours credit) designed to meet a specific problem or need can and are offered in a variety of scheduling and time formats. The mini-courses may meet the needs of inservice education for different institutions such as hospitals, school and businesses. Many mini-courses also meet the extensive avocational interests of the adult learner.

3. Within a traditional semester's format for an off-campus course it is possible to go "beyond" a single mode lecture approach. When a lesser number of lectures is combined with independent study assignments and individualized consulting, all students need not attend all 16 sessions. Yet, the quality of work need not suffer if the potential for individualizing through appropriate independent study assignments and through effective one-on-one and/or small group consulting are effectively done.

4. More use of independent study courses. Most departments within a college or university have a course for variable credit (generally from 1 to 6 hours). These independent courses have not always been well advertised as viable alternatives for the regular on or off campus courses. However, the trend indicates the need for these courses and has finally created recognition by higher education that students can learn in the independent study mode.

5. Two other instructional variants which have been successfully tried by many institutions are different combinations of TV programming and correspondence study. Some of these programs could be strengthened by having minimal contact between Professor and Student included.

Student Needs: IV

Differing educational experiences, goals and learning styles of individuals emphasize the importance of matching instructional strategies to these differences.

Problem

The lecture is still the dominant pedagogical strategy on the university campus and is often still "clung to" as the primary strategy for meeting a multitude of differing educational goals and learning styles of traditional and non-traditional students for off-campus courses.

Hypotheses

New and different deliveries of off-campus courses should bring with it a diversity of pedagogical strategies. Experience based learning, team teaching, small group cooperative learning, computer assisted instruction, simulation instruction, and micro-teaching are just a few of the instructional strategies that are finding increased use in extension or off-campus courses. The developing awareness of the uniqueness of learning modes of individuals is finally to be observed more frequently in the pedagogical processes of higher education's delivery of off-campus courses.

Finally, are the new concepts of delivering off-campus courses viable? There are at least two basic reasons to say that they are:

1. The competition for a dwindling number of traditional students, as well as the growing number of non-traditional adult students has influenced even the most "staid" higher education institutions to consider consumer demands and revitalize institutional, program and credit demands.

2. Preliminary feedback from students suggests that many of the new courses and pedagogical strategies are meeting their academic, vocational and avocational needs.

The fears of diminished quality for traditional programs in non-traditional formats need not be realized if basic concepts are still taught. The "community of scholars" opening up their "community" to a broad spectrum of learners need not diminish scholarship. Thus, the off-campus educational offerings can help offer a continuity and synergistic quality to our lives that few other institutional processes can — self-actualization through knowledge.

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INDIANA — COOPERATIVE EFFORTS TOWARD EXCELLENCE IN CONTINUING EDUCATION

Donald Rininger

The past decade has witnessed a staggering proliferation of off-campus credit offerings by colleges and universities throughout the country. Motivation for such expansion takes many forms; idealistically, fulfillment of a service mission should be paramount; realistically, financial gains and increased enrollment are the primary motivating factors for such efforts. The scope of offerings ranges from, perhaps, a single class in the immediate community to a full-blown national or international program with a multi-million dollar promotional effort. Probably, the most common is within a given state on a regional or statewide basis. Along with this expansion have come pressures and an air of competitiveness heretofore unknown in academe. Territorial imperatives, real or imagined, are being challenged; tempers are becoming frayed and state regulatory agencies are increasingly imposing restrictive guidelines. All of this infighting has had the effect of shortchanging the ultimate consumer — the student — and of lessening the quality of service provided. What might be done to enhance cooperation, alleviate confrontation and attempt to insure quality of programming? The following represents one state's efforts to come to grips with the difficulties involved.

In February of 1975, a meeting was held to discuss the establishment of the Indiana Council for Continuing Education. It was recognized that such an organization should have the following characteristics: (1) voluntary membership, (2) institutional support, (3) public and private representation, (4) involvement of the Indiana Commission for Higher Education, (5) stated and accepted goals, guidelines, and regulations, and (6) responsiveness to institutional and state needs.

Following these guidelines, the Indiana Council for Continuing Education (ICCE) was established and held its first meeting on February 21, 1975. During the monthly meetings that followed, a great amount of rapport, trust, and open discussion of critical issues in continuing education was established among its members. Today, the organization is working to meet the continuing education needs of Indiana's adult population.

Goals and Purposes

The Indiana Council for Continuing Education is designed to:

1. Effect a closer cooperative relationship in continuing education between the public and private colleges and universities of the state;
2. Implement cooperative arrangements to provide comprehensive continuing education services throughout the state without unnecessary duplication of services;
3. Conduct joint research efforts necessary to effectively fulfill the mission of continuing education;

About The Author

Dr. Rininger is Director of Off-Campus Programs and Associate Professor of Secondary Education, Indiana State University.

4. Maximize the utilization of competencies and facilities of the several member institutions;
5. Encourage voluntary cooperative efforts among public and private institutions in meeting post secondary degree needs through nontraditional (external) programs;
6. Serve as a forum for considering program innovations of general interest;
7. Communicate with the Indiana Commission for Higher Education regarding cooperative relationships and efforts;
8. Provide the citizens of Indiana with information regarding the continuing education programs available through Indiana universities and colleges;
9. Seek assistance from appropriate groups in the solution of problems of concern to the Council.

Council Membership

Council membership is based on:

1. Institutional Membership
 - a. One representative from each of the state-supported institutions of post secondary education and two representatives from the independent colleges and universities of the state.
 - b. An additional representative from each institution having regional campuses.
2. Two representatives from the Indiana Commission for Higher Education are invited to attend Council meetings as nonvoting participants.

Council Meetings

The Council convenes regularly and at least twice annually. Members are notified by the secretary at least two weeks prior to each meeting date. The executive committee may decide when additional meetings are needed.

During the more than five years of its existence, the ICCE has served the populace of the state of Indiana in many and varied ways. Perhaps an illustration of a series of ICCE sponsored training seminars can best represent the positive effects such an organization can have within a state.

While there exists in every state a cadre of well-trained and effective continuing education professionals, program expansion has brought with it the need for increased staffing, many of whom, in fact, have had no prior experience with adult or continuing education. Regardless of the background of such individuals, who range from the long-tenured faculty member whose reassignment is mandated because of an enrollment decline within a given department to the neophyte just entering the field of professional education, ways must be found to provide training so that they might function effectively as members of the continuing education team. Too often this training has been limited to on-the-job training, a process which, because of trial and error methods, wastes a great deal of time and often fails to deliver the most effective and efficient service. Infrequently, because of budget limitations, new staff members may attend national or regional workshops and seminars which generally provide limited insight as to problems unique to a given situation or location.

Recognizing the body of untrained continuing education workers in Indiana, members of the ICCE began to grapple with the problem of how to economically provide quality training for these individuals. An assessment of strengths within the state revealed a number of high level professionals, many, nationally recognized, both within and outside the field of continuing education. All possessed skills relevant to effective performance in continuing education. Secondly, a needs survey was conducted among continuing education staffs throughout the state. When a needs priority list was established from this survey, it was determined that there existed ample resources and expertise to respond to the needs expressed. A steering committee was then appointed to consider the feasibility of setting up a series of training seminars using only Indiana leaders and resources. By this method it was hoped that expenses could be kept to a minimum while providing appropriate, high quality training.

The net result of the steering committee's efforts was the evolvement of a plan to provide a series of six seminars especially geared to continuing education professionals of Indiana colleges and universities. The concept was unusual in that it was to be entirely developed and implemented by the continuing educators in a particular state. By specific intent, the seminars were planned on a rotating basis at different cities around the state. In this way, persons from each region would have an opportunity to attend at least one of the seminars. An invitation to the various colleges and universities to "subscribe" to seats at a given seminar resulted in twenty-three firm registrants — sufficient to assure the financial feasibility of the undertaking.

The first seminar — "How to Attract Participants" (Marketing Analysis and Program Promotion) — held in Indianapolis on November 6 and 7, 1980, was a resounding success. Total registration was limited to thirty, and a full complement of participants ranging from secretaries to deans engaged in two days of hard work, camaraderie and entertainment. All in attendance agreed that there was something worthwhile for all involved. The next two seminars — "How to Instruct Participants" (Program Design and Instructional Planning) and "What Are Results" (Evaluation Procedures) — are well advanced in the planning stage and promise to be as exciting and professionally rewarding as was the first.

All of the preceding did not occur without considerable time and effort (*gratis*, it might be added) of many individuals. However, the results — a training program, at least the equal of many of those presented on a national level, at a fraction of the cost — made it more than worth the effort. Keep in mind this represents but one of the many functions of the ICCE. The writer makes no claim that such an organization provides a panacea or that shortcomings within the state are not evident. However, the improvement in cooperation and service has been enormous and ongoing since its inception. If your state has no such body, serious consideration might be given to the establishment of one. The possibilities for action are unlimited and the consumers of your product — the students — will be the ultimate beneficiaries.

A CONTINUING EDUCATION PARADIGM FOR SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS IN RURAL AREAS

Leo McGee, Margaret Phelps, and Larry Peach

Continuing Education in Perspective

Not since the enactment of the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, which created the Agriculture Cooperative Extension Service, has the American higher education enterprise made such a dramatic effort to address the needs of the non-traditional student.¹ From New England to the West Coast, colleges and universities are conceptualizing and conducting thousands of extension and continuing education courses, workshops, conferences and innovative projects. Those activities are designed for the adult students who are engaged in credit and non-credit programs.² Many are engaged in college sponsored programs for the first time, while others are seeking retraining or advanced credit opportunities.

Aggressive extension and continuing education efforts are put forth to increase both the colleges' public image and student population.³ The adult students and the general public are staunch supporters of this new phenomenon. The state legislature has mandated relicensure in many of the professions. These officials are encouraged to see institutions of higher education heavily engaged in assisting professionals and other citizens in accomplishing their educational goals. More than 17 million adults aged 25 and over participate in continuing education courses annually. Part-time students currently outnumber the traditional, full-time student enrollments.⁴

Organizational Structure

Perhaps the greatest difference in continuing education programs in higher education across the country is in their organizational structures. There are nearly as many organizational patterns as there are institutions involved in continuing education. These variances seem to be dictated by several factors including institutional type (public or private).

The financing of continuing education programs differ widely among universities. In many places they have small budget allocations and are expected to generate large sums for the institution. At many of the major universities continuing education is a big business with budgets that extend into millions of dollars.

Among the multiplicity of operational variations, there are generally three basic models employed to implement continuing education programs:

About The Authors

Dr. Leo McGee is Assistant Dean of Extended Services, Associate Professor of Administration, Supervision, and Curriculum, Tennessee Technological University.

Dr. Margaret Phelps is Chairman of the Department of Administration, Supervision, and Curriculum, Associate Professor, Tennessee Technological University.

Dr. Larry Peach is Assistant Professor of Administration, Supervision and Curriculum, Tennessee Technological University.

Centralized Model: All continuing education programs emanate from a central, autonomous continuing education unit. Generally, the continuing education unit will have its own program development, instructional and evaluation staffs. Often this unit offers its own degrees with little or no relationship to campus degrees or campus faculty.

Decentralized Model: All continuing education programs emanate from the academic units of the institution without reference to a continuing education unit. Total responsibility for program development and delivery is vested in the dean of the academic unit.

Cooperative Model: Responsibility for program identification and development is shared jointly by the academic college and the College of Continuing Education. Academic responsibility is vested primarily in the academic college, while administration and fiscal management is vested primarily in the College of Continuing Education. The Dean of Continuing Education has leadership responsibility for the total continuing education efforts of the campus.²

A Campus and Regional Resource

Even in the face of financial exigency, most of today's continuing education programs have the potential of being a strong campus and regional resource. Perhaps the most essential element needed in the effectuation of a quality continuing education program is a high level commitment of the entire university to this cause. More often than not, institutional support of a program can be determined by the program's productivity.

A preponderance of contemporary continuing education programs have exhibited a high level of productivity. Presently, nearly all institutions (public, private, two-year, four-year, urban and rural) are in some way engaged in continuing education. Fisher points out that, "In one state, the number of institutions that provided programs of continuing education just a few years ago was in the teens. Today more than 150 institutions are active."³ Most consider it a part of their mission to direct much of their attention to the adult student population.

Continuing Education for School Personnel

School personnel may well be the most in-serviced group in the education profession.⁴ There is ever increasing pressure on teachers and administrators to continue their education to maintain appropriate certification.⁵ In not a few instances, supportive personnel are subjected to equal pressure to maintain and upgrade their skills. These groups have sought assistance from every imaginable source. Colleges and universities, no doubt, have played the major role in this regard. Over the years, these professionals have flooded the colleges and universities whenever their schedules would permit, whether at seven o'clock on Thursday evening or two o'clock on Sunday afternoon. Many have spent weeks at a time during summer months in various types of workshops, seminars, institutes and conferences. Frequently, these activities took them to college campuses miles away from home and away from their families. These in-service/continuing education programs enabled school personnel to grow professionally and improve their ability to work with students under their tutelage.

It is safe to say that the continuing education/public service entity of the university has done an excellent job of serving the in-service interests of school personnel.

At the heart of it all have been dedicated faculty members and administrators interested in assisting school personnel in all of their professional growth efforts.

The Paradigm

During the past two decades critics of educational programs for the youth of this country have primarily focused on educational malfunctions in large urban centers. Almost every aspect of educational programs in those areas have been criticized. Perhaps the areas that have received the most severe blows are student discipline and achievement. Schools located in the more remote areas of this country have seemingly gone unnoticed, many times to their disadvantage.* However, this is no longer true.

While problems in rural schools may not be as severe and multitudinous as those in the city, schools in these areas are by no means problem free. *Time* magazine admonished in 1978 that: "The plague is spreading to rural and suburban schools. Even there, brutal fights in the corridors and weapons hidden in cars outside are no longer rare."⁹ Peter Laarman further stated that: "One of the most shocking things is that people can no longer say this is an inner-city problem. The dimensions are appalling."¹⁰

One problem that is perhaps more vivid in rural school systems than in urban ones is the lack of adequately prepared and well informed school board members. A vast majority of the school systems in these areas have board members that are elected by popular vote. A significant percentage of the successful candidates lack the appropriate skills to successfully carry out this important assignment. It doesn't take long for the newly elected board member to recognize the frustrations of the position. On the other hand, however, they may be at a loss as to where to turn for help.

Model University,¹² a southeastern, state supported university, made a successful effort to rescue this important group of public officials in its service territory. A continuing education program was conceptualized and implemented for this group of education officials during the year 1978-79. Those benefiting were highly complimentary of the program. (See Table IV.)

The main purpose of this paper is to share a model program with other professional educators, for it is believed that the level of replicability of this program is high. Other universities and rural school systems may wish to adopt the program in its entirety or extract portions of it to meet the training needs of school board members in their areas.

Model University has a rich history of offering a wide range of athletic, educational and cultural programs in its region. There is an increasing demand on the University and its resources — mainly of a continuing education/in-service nature. It has always been the intent of the University to continue to augment programs and search for new resources to meet the needs of its constituency.

Throughout the years school systems in the region had turned to Model University for assistance in various aspects of school management and program development. In this regard, the foremost support had come through the continuing education/in-service efforts of the College of Education.

One problem that consistently plagued school systems in the region was "the lack of formal opportunities for school board members to learn about their responsibilities as school systems decision makers." The Continuing Education Office at Model University embraces the philosophy that effective continuing education/in-

service programming, particularly for school personnel, can best be accomplished by collaborating with academic units. In this case the Office of Continuing Education and the Department of Administration, Supervision and Curriculum jointly sponsored "The School Board Training Project." A federal grant, through a state agency, was obtained to support the project.

Planning

A survey conducted in 13 regional counties revealed that there were 72 males and 6 females serving as school board members. As indicated in Table I, 57 or 73 percent had served no more than five years. Fifteen had less than one year of experience. Fifty held high school diplomas, while 9 had not completed high school training. Table II identifies the many school board training needs in the region.

Table I
Profile of School Board Members
In 13 Counties

Counties	Members		Education						Experience As Board Members			
	Male	Female	1-8 yrs.	9-11 yrs.	12 yrs.	13-14 yrs.	15-16 yrs.	Other	0-1 yrs.	1-5 yrs.	6-10 yrs.	Over 10 yrs.
1. A	5				5					5		
2. B	7	2			5		4		3	6		
3. C	6	1	1		4	1	1			4		3
4. D	3	2			3			2		3	2	
5. E	5		2	1	2				4	1		
6. F	5				3		2			4		1
7. G	5				4	1			2	3		
8. H	4			3	1				2	2		
9. I	6	1			3	1	3		1	3	2	1
10. J	7				7				1	2	3	1
11. K	5			2	2		1			1	2	2
12. L	7				4		2	1		6		1
13. M	7				7				2	2		3
Total	72	6	3	6	50	3	13	3	15	42	9	12

*
Table 21
Training Need of School Board Members
In 13 Counties

Counties	Sch. Law	Sch. Fin.	Per.	Curr.	Discipline	Facilities	Duties of Sch. Bd.	Duties of Supt.	Other
1. A	X						X	X	
2. B	X	X		X			X	X	
3. C	X	X				X	X		
4. D		X					X	X	X
5. E	X	X	X				X	X	
6. F	X	X	X				X	X	
7. G	X	X	X						
8. H	X	X		X		X	X	X	
9. I			X						X
10. J	X	X	X		X				X
11. K	X	X					X	X	
12. L	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
13. M							X	X	
Total	10	10	6	3	2	3	10	9	3

Implementation:

A field-based delivery system for training sessions was used. Four workshops were held in four different locations in the region. A different topic was covered, in-depth, at each of the workshops including School Facilities and Pupil Transportation, Public School Professional Negotiations, School and Community Relations, Legal Responsibilities. The training sessions were taken to the target groups. Board members, superintendents and other key school personnel attended and interacted together. A dinner meal was an integral part of the workshops. This cost and participants' travel expenses were borne by the project. The attendance at the four workshops included 221 males and 74 females.

Table III gives a geographic depiction of the region while Table IV is a revelation of the project evaluation.

Table III
Model University and Surrounding Counties

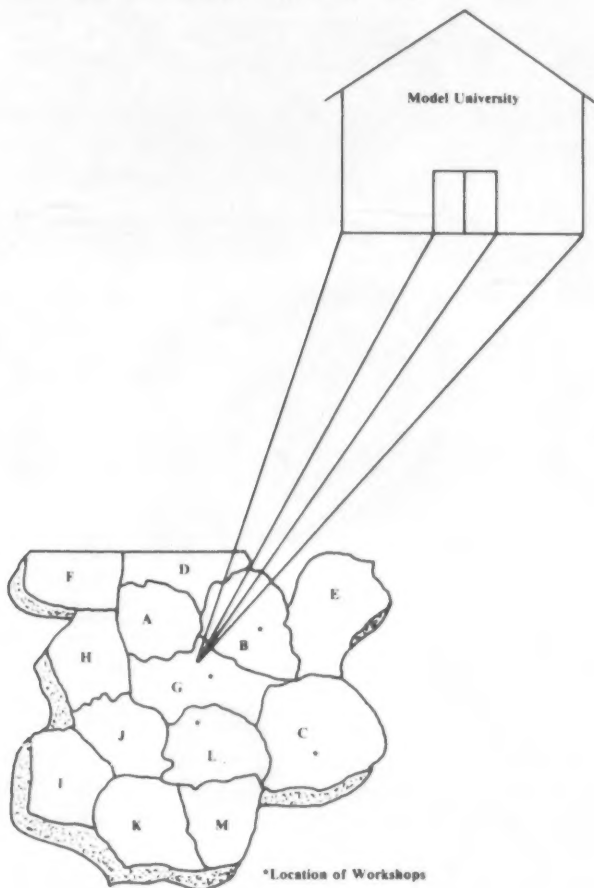


Table IV
Workshop Evaluation

Directions: From the following 21 statements please check as many as necessary to describe your reaction to this workshop.

1. 11% It was one of the most rewarding experiences I have ever had.
2. 11% Exactly what I wanted.
3. 77% I hope we can have another workshop in the near future on other contemporary issues.
4. 57% It provided the kind of experience that I can apply to my own situation.
5. 66% It helped me personally.
6. 50% It solved some problems for me.
7. 74% I think it served its purpose.
8. 87% The location and facilities for this workshop were satisfactory.
9. 80% The subject matter was appropriate.
10. 0 It was neither very good or very poor.
11. 77% I was generally satisfied.
12. 0 It was not exactly what I needed.
13. .01% It was too general.
14. 68% I am taking some new or helpful ideas away.
15. 68% It held my interest.
16. 77% The length of each session was satisfactory.
17. 0 I leave DISSATISFIED.
18. 71% It was well planned.
19. 0 I didn't learn a thing.
20. 0 A better time of day would have been _____.
21. 82% The consultants were knowledgeable and well prepared.

Summary

Continuing education is by no means new to higher education or to school systems. What is different is that both institutions are giving more structure and credibility to the program. This new thrust becomes more obvious when one views school system teacher centers and the elaborate continuing education centers found on college campuses. This leaves no doubt that continuing education is here to stay and it just might be the most exciting aspect of the education enterprise today.

Footnotes

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3. Ibid.
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7. Val D. Rust, "Can Teacher Education Centers Facilitate School Development?" *Phi Delta Kappan*, Vol. 62, No. 2, October 1980, pp. 122-124.
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10. "The ABCs of School Violence," *Time*, January 23, 1978, p. 73.
11. Ibid.
12. Model University — A Representative Rural University

IN-SERVICE FOR ADMINISTRATORS

Dr. Arthur G. Kupisch and Dr. Peter J. Murk

The theme for the 1980 American Association of School Administrators' National Convention was "Champions of Learning". Whether this was a convention of those who are the "Champions of Learning" or a convention theme that challenged its participants to become "Champions of Learning" is debatable. Either way, the distinction of being a "Champion of Learning" can only be maintained by administrative practitioners through in-service training programs. While the convention itself was an educational opportunity, there was little, if any, information provided on in-service programs for the "Champions" back home.

The lack of professional development programs for administrators is illustrated by the limited number of published articles on the topic. One example is Dennis Managers' Report to the *California Legislative Task Force for the Improvement of Pre- and In-service Training for Public School Administrators*. The Task Force began its work in 1972 and submitted the report in September, 1978.¹

The Task Force recommended ongoing professional development for principals. They encouraged school boards, administrators, professional associations, and the State Board of Education to lend their support and encouragement to this need. They further recommended that the California School Boards Association, association of administrators, along with one or more local school districts work cooperatively with colleges and universities to create a professional development program for school administrators which would serve as a model to other city and county school districts.²

Another example of encouragement and assistance being provided to school administrators is the work done by Ball State University. They approached the need from two perspectives. One is the establishment of six school Study Councils conducted by the Department of Educational Administration and Supervision. The format for these monthly in-service programs for school administrators is discussion, mutual problem solving, presentations by skilled professionals in the field, and examination of the current research in educational administration. Professors from Ball State University serve as executive secretaries of the Study Councils.

Ball State's second approach to in-service training for administrators is *Weekend Residential Leadership Series*. The series consists of six weekend sessions scheduled during the year. It provides an in-service vehicle for school personnel to keep abreast of trends and innovative practices related to administrative and leadership responsibilities in public education.³

The key to these successful series is the utilization of the expertise of University professionals to respond to the concerns related by administrators stemming from their job experiences.⁴

About The Authors

Dr. Arthur G. Kupisch is Superintendent of Christian County School System, Hopkinsville, Kentucky.

Dr. Peter J. Murk is Director, Professional Program Development, School of Continuing Education, Ball State University, Muncie, Ind.

The Externship Program at Michigan State University provides outreach in-service training for school personnel and administrators. This program, which has been in operation for twelve years, brings administrators and staff members to the main campus or to regional centers for specialized in-service training. The Michigan State model was one of the earliest and most effective in-service training programs for administrators in the nation.³

These three programs are similar in that a series of topics are announced and participants are required to attend the sessions outside their local educational environment. The ideas generated at these meetings are susceptible to emasculation when they are transferred to a new environment. In order for the participants to successfully inject the new ideas into their educational system, teachers and administrators have to be knowledgeable and accepting of the proposed changes. Further complications may be encountered in tailoring a theoretical solution to fit a real problem existing at the local level.

With these thoughts in mind the Elwood School System sought a better way to obtain in-service training for their "Champions of Learning". Their in-service objectives were to:

- 1) provide the training in Elwood, Indiana,
- 2) provide topics determined by the local administrators based on existing problems, and
- 3) provide the in-service at a realistic cost.

Because of its close proximity, Ball State University was contacted to determine resources for attaining the objectives. Ball State responded enthusiastically and discussion began on the development of an in-service delivery model.

The model was designed by representatives of the School of Continuing Education at Ball State University and the administrators of the Elwood School Corporation. Together, the officials selected nine general issues reflective of relevant administrative, managerial, leadership and curricular needs. The general issues were later refined to specifically meet the needs of the Elwood System. All sessions dealt with practitioner questions and issues confronting school administrators and teachers. The topics for the meetings were agreed upon by the steering committee. Sessions were held monthly from 6:00-9:00 p.m. in the Elwood Community School Corporation School Board room. The nine sessions dealt with the following topics:

- 1) Time Management and Productivity,
- 2) Legal Aspects of Education,
- 3) Conflict Management and Resolution,
- 4) Elementary Mathematics and Teaching Techniques,
- 5) Elementary Science and Teaching Techniques,
- 6) Reading in Content Areas and Teaching Techniques,
- 7) New Trends in Education,
- 8) Discipline and Classroom Management, and
- 9) Leadership Skills and Administrative Procedures.

Three quarter hours of optional graduate credit were available from Ball State University in Education Curriculum 501 — "Workshop on Principles and Procedures of Curriculum Development".

The total cost for the nine sessions plus graduate credit for the participants was \$1,620. Two neighboring school systems and community business leaders were invited to participate in the program. This resulted in increased utilization of an in-service resource while at the same time promoting public relations on a cost effective basis.

By beginning the in-service experience with an identified need, the time spent in in-service activities was more efficiently utilized. Local problems were focused on from the start with the marriage of theory and reality permeating the entire in-service experience. This educational opportunity increased the leadership skills of the participants not only in the identification of problem areas but more importantly by providing them with the tools necessary for remediation.

Plans are being developed for future professional in-service training programs. The results thus far have been positive and encouraging. Most schools of Continuing Education are ready to serve as "Facilitating Agencies" to provide the educational resources of the University and to address the practical concerns/issues confronted by administrators. This is a unique partnership involving University specialists and school administrators that can be adapted to other school systems.

School systems must insure in-service opportunities for their "Champions" in order to achieve the higher standards of quality expected by an increasingly knowledgeable public.

References

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4. M. Edward Ratliff, "Leadership at Ball State University", *Continuum*, 3 (March 1977): 13.
5. Telephone interview with Sam Moore, Chairman, Educational Administration and Higher Education Department, College of Education, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 14 March 1980.

Conference Messages

Annual Conference Welcome

Some months after joining the University of Nebraska staff, I was asked to be the institution's representative to the 1967 A.F.S.T.E. Conference in Ypsilanti, Michigan. I must confess I was not elated with my assignment, as a number of my colleagues were attending the N.U.E.A. Conference at Ann Arbor at the same time. Frankly, I felt as the "new boy on the block" I was being given the less prestigious duty.

For those of you who have been associated with A.F.S.T.E. and now its successor A.C.P.E., I don't need to tell you what happened. I was immediately attracted to this group and have attended all but one subsequent conference. The programs have always been stimulating, the organization's goals and standards are a bench mark in continuing education, and the individuals who make up the Association have become some of my very best professional friends.

It is a pleasure to welcome you to our campus for the 1981 Conference. We at the University of Nebraska sincerely hope the program and activities planned for May 3-5 will measure up to the Association's high standards.

J. Earl Green
President, ACPE, 1980-81

University of Nebraska-Lincoln Extends Its Welcome To ACPE

On behalf of the students and faculty of The University of Nebraska-Lincoln, I extend to you our greetings, our welcome, and best wishes for a useful and memorable conference. Extending the resources of the campus throughout the State, through diverse means to diverse groups, is one of the most significant activities we are engaged in today. Because of the collective efforts of groups like ACPE, that mission is realized with skill and with professional devotion. I congratulate you on your past achievements; by the same token, I urge you to continue your drive for better ways for us to serve professional communities through continuing education.

Robert H. Rutford
Interim Chancellor
The University of Nebraska-Lincoln

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 Upper Montclair, New Jersey 07043

Awards and Honors

Spring 1953

Miss Lou Shepard — Life Membership
Iowa State Teachers College
Cedar Falls, Iowa

Spring 1954

E.L. Ritter — Life Membership
Iowa State College
Cedar Falls, Iowa

Spring 1963

Earl Armstrong — Service Award
5210 Andover Road
Chevy Chase, Maryland

Spring 1964

Dolphus Whitten — Life Membership
Former Director, Extension Service
Henderson State Teachers College
Arkadelphia, Arkansas

Bryan Heise — Service Award
Former Director, Extension Service
Eastern Illinois University
Charleston, Illinois

Spring 1965

V.L. Tatlock — Life Membership
Former Director of Extension
Indiana State College
Terre Haute, Indiana

Rosalie Farley — Service Award
University of Nebraska
Lincoln, Nebraska

Spring 1966

Woodward C. Smith — Outstanding Service Award
Central Michigan University
Mount Pleasant, Michigan

Spring 1967

Carl R. Anderson — Outstanding Service Award
Mount Pleasant, Michigan

Spring 1968

Benjamin Matelson — Distinguished Service Award
(Awarded Posthumously)
William Paterson College of New Jersey
Wayne, New Jersey

Spring 1969

Carl R. Anderson —
Life Membership
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan

Otto Yntema
Outstanding Service Award
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan

Spring 1970

E.J. Soop — Life Membership
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan

Otto Yntema — Life Membership
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan

Spring 1971

Robert Abernathy — Outstanding Service Award
Middle Tennessee State College
Murfreesboro, Tennessee

Spring 1972

Sam H. Moorer — Life Membership
State University System of Florida
Tallahassee, Florida

Spring 1973

Adah Gunton — Life Membership
Central Michigan University
Mount Pleasant, Michigan

Robert Abernathy — Life Membership
Middle Tennessee State University
Murfreesboro, Tennessee

J.E. Wright — Life Membership
Northeast Missouri State College
Kirksville, Missouri

R.E. Michael — Life Membership
Ball State University
Muncie, Indiana

Fall 1973

John Ed Fuhrman —
Life Membership
Northwest Missouri State University
Maryville, Missouri

Joseph E. Clettenberg — Life Membership
Northern Illinois University
DeKalb, Illinois

Spring 1974

J.D. Marcus —
Outstanding Service Award
Life Membership
Central Michigan University
Mount Pleasant, Michigan

Lois Burdick —
Outstanding Service Award
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, Indiana

Louis F. Slock — Life Membership Award
Wisconsin State University
Eau Claire, Wisconsin

Spring 1975

Edward Ambry —
Outstanding Service Award
Montclair State College
Upper Montclair, New Jersey

Richard Harring
Outstanding Service Award
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan

Spring 1976

Charles Longacre —
Outstanding Service Award
Kean College
Union, New Jersey

Marion L. Parsons —
Outstanding Service Award
Kean College
Union, New Jersey

Earl Studt — Outstanding Service Award
Life Membership
Eastern Michigan University
Ypsilanti, Michigan

Spring 1977

Raymond J. Schlicher —
Outstanding Service Award
Northern Iowa University
Cedar Falls, Iowa

Louis E. Slock —
Outstanding Service Award
University of Wisconsin-Eau Claire
Eau Claire, Wisconsin

Francis E. Brown —
Life Membership
Outstanding Service Award
Illinois State University
Normal, Illinois

Willard L. Thompson —
Outstanding Service Award
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, Minnesota

Leo Stine — Life Membership
Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan

Spring 1978

Lois Burdick — Life Membership
Indiana State University
Terre Haute, Indiana

Marion Parsons — Life Membership
Kean College
Union, New Jersey

David Middleton — Outstanding Service Award
East Carolina University
Greenville, North Carolina

Spring 1979

Garlan F. Bailey — Outstanding Service Award
(Awarded Posthumously)
East Carolina University
Greenville, North Carolina

Spring 1980

Roy Blanton —
Life Membership
Appalachian State University
Boone, North Carolina

Raymond J. Schlicher —
Life Membership
University of Northern Iowa
Cedar Falls, Iowa